The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 23, 1890.

The Week.

SECRETARY WINDOM'S Silver Bill is at variance with all the laws of sound finance, and the only excuse that can be found for it is that the present coinage law, which it proposes to repeal, is still more at variance with them. The upshot of the bill, if it should pass, would be to stop the present arbitrary coinage of two millions per month, and make it discretionary with the Secretary to receive silver bullion and issue certificates therefor, or not, and to change his policy in that regard from time to time; the approval of the President being necessary to a suspension of the ordinary operation of the law. This is so totally opposed to all conceptions of currency and money that have ever received the sanction of thinkers, that in any other country it would be set in the pillory as a warning to the rising generation, but for the fact that it is intended to supersede something even more anomalous. The discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury is certainly better than the two-million-per-month law. Moreover, since the silver certificates are not to be legal tender, and since the banks are not required to receive them, the possible mischief would be within determinable bounds.

Senator Sherman having taken it upon himself to introduce the Knox bill to continue the existence of the national-banking system after the national bonds shall have been paid off (for that is the *raison d'être* of the bill), we may assume that the measure is to be seriously taken up and pressed to a vote, although a conclusion may not be reached upon it during the present session or in the present Congress. We have already expressed the opinion that the principle of the bill is sound. In its amended form, an additional security to note-holders is given by a provision that the redemption of the circulating notes of failed banks shall constitute a first lien on the assets and on the individual liability of the shareholders of the banks, taking precedence of all claims except the expenses of the receivership. This is also a sound provision. Meanwhile a counter proposition has been put forward, that first-class bonds issued by States and flourishing municipalities may be received in lieu of United States bonds as security for bank circulation. This plan we consider wholly inadmissible, for a variety of reasons. First-class State bonds are not obtainable in any amount worth considering, all the States whose securities would be regarded as good beyond peradventure being nearly or quite out of debt. The duty would be imposed upon the Treasury Department, at all events, of inquiring into the financial standing of both States and municipalities in order to determine what are first-class, and also what description of bonds have been lawfully issued under the respective Constitutions of the States. Here lobby influence would certainly come in to the assistance and confusion of the Treasury officials, and if any mistakes were made resulting in loss, conflicts between Federal and State authority would ensue which might lead to greater evils than the measure is intended to cure.

The convention of the Afro-American League at Chicago last week appears to have been a failure, so far as any benefit to the negroes is concerned. The colored bishops, the chief educators, and the other more promising leaders of the race were almost entirely absent, and the men who did most of the talking contributed nothing of value to the discussion of the questions involved. Indeed, the idea of accomplishing anything through the League was all wrong. That idea grew out of the notion that the wrongs from which the negro suffers can be righted in short order by the action of a convention, or of a political party, or of the Government. Those wrongs grow out of a prejudice among whites against blacks, which prejudice in turn grows out of the fact that the blacks were long slaves, and are still as a race generations behind the whites in civilization. To overcome this prejudice must be the work of time, and a long time at the shortest. The best way to hasten the result is for the blacks to devote themselves to the acquisition of education and of property, rather than to holding conventions and demanding legislation which would probably be adjudged unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, and would be annulled by the people if it were not by the judiciary. The most hopeful sign for the future of the race is not the holding of Afro-American League conventions, but the fact, cited by Gen. S. C. Armstrong in *Frank Leslie's*, that "the race is steadily accumulating property in land," and that "where the total taxable landed property of Georgia has increased in ten years 53 per cent., the taxable landed property of the negro has increased 83 per cent.—a state of things whose significance needs no comment, especially as it exists, according to the best evidence we can get, throughout the South."

Gov. Abbett of New Jersey has given Gov. Hill the hardest blow which he has received as the leading opponent of ballot reform. Great hopes have been entertained by the Hill-Dana-Butler-Foraker-Gorman-Boutelle-Tanner-Halstead combination that Gov. Abbett would join them in opposing the Australian system, and especially the exclusive official-ballot requirement of it. It is said, on apparently good authority, that Gov. Hill wrote several letters to Gov. Abbett earnestly requesting him to take such a stand. But the latter was too sagacious a politician to put his political future in peril by any such alliance. He has placed himself on record in his message as being squarely in favor of the official ballot, saying that among the "essential features" of a ballot-reform law, which he cordially recommends, should be the following:

> "There should be an exclusively official ballot, printed and distributed by the State, so that one ballot cannot be distinguished from another when it is folded and ready for voting. The law should prohibit the use of any ballot except the official ballot."

He goes on to say that he believes personally that official ballots could safely be distributed elsewhere than in the polling-places, but that he recognizes the fact that ballot-reformers do not agree with him on that point, and that he is willing to waive it if the Legislature so decree. Gov. Abbett's declaration, taken in connection with that of Gov. Campbell of Ohio and Gov. Wilson of West Virginia, all Democrats, leaves Gov. Hill more than ever solitary in his party as the opponent of the reform. He is, in fact, the beginning and end of organized opposition in this country. But for him and his specious objections, which a handful of professional anti-reformers have echoed, nearly every State in the Union would have had by this date a genuine ballot-reform law on its statute-books.

The speech made by the Honble. Calvin S. Brice, who has just been elected to the United States Senate, in acknowledging his nomination by the Democratic caucus, traced out in broad and striking lines the great features of the legislative policy which he would support in the august body in which he now takes his seat. He spoke as follows:

> "I desire that there shall be freedom of action, freedom of speech—as much of each as is consistent with every one in the commonwealth. This is the sum of my Democracy—not more legislation than is required to accomplish this. Whether the issue be a temporary one or a protracted one, by it I know I can test and determine the place where I will stand and where the Democratic party ought to be. Whether it is a question relating to money laws, as we had between 1869 and 1876 and 1878, I say that no more legislation should be enacted than is required to give to each individual free action, free thought and deed. I say, gentlemen, that the principles of Democracy have been the same from the times of Jefferson and Washington down to the present, whether it was the tariff or the money that demanded the attention of the legislators. This is my Democracy, and by it I propose to live and die."

The Brooklyn *Eagle* makes on this the criticism, which if jestingly made is very unseemly, that "there has been nothing equal to it since the construction of Noah's Ark." In a certain sense this is undoubtedly true. The Ark was not made without much thought and many plans and specifications. Neither, we may be sure, was this striking but compact sketch of the Democratic policy in Federal affairs. Like all things worth examination, its full meaning cannot be grasped without prolonged study, but it will well repay the investigator, if in no other way, as a mental exercise.

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The Vermont "Commissioner of Agricultural and Manufacturing Interests" has published (in Swedish as well as in English, which seems very odd and adventurous for a staid New England commonwealth) his advertised map of the State, "showing the locations of towns in which are unoccupied farms, and lands occupied which can be bought at about the same price as those unoccupied." These towns are printed on the map in deep colors, so as to make a striking picture to the eye, and at first glance appear to include about one-half the whole State. In reality their number is but sixty, or somewhat less than one-third the whole number of Vermont towns. It is to be observed, however, that the map includes only towns from which official intelligence has been received, and there are many others than those here delineated in which, as a matter of fact, to use the Commissioner's language, "Good farms, with fair buildings and maple-sugar orchards, can be purchased at from $3 to $5 per acre, while others, with better buildings, and near railroad or village, can be bought for from $5 to $10 per acre." Our own observation and information point to the conclusion that the number of Vermont towns in which these conditions actually exist (more or less widely) may be double the number officially notified to the Commissioner, and therefore appearing on his map.

Confining observation strictly to the map, it is interesting to note that the desolate regions are in a longitudinal strip comprising, roughly, the eastern half, and, as the State widens towards the north, still bearing to the east and leaning, as it were, on the Connecticut River. Indeed, upon the western border but a single town is marked upon the map, that of Sandgate, next to the favorite summer resort of Manchester, while no less than fourteen of the marked townships are either directly upon the eastern border or are but one remove from it, the thriving neighborhoods of Brattleboro and Bellows Falls maintaining a narrow fringe of prosperity along the river for a considerable space. And all the remaining desolate towns are packed together almost without break against this eastern limit. It is not altogether easy to account for the strong line of demarcation between the eastern and western halves of Vermont, thus laid down on the Commissioner's map, but it seems probable that the great Champlain waterway may have influenced the prosperity of the western half of the State as far south as the latitude of Rutland, while from Rutland south the mineral resources of the western portion must have contributed something. Still, it must be remembered that, as we have remarked, the map is but a compilation of official reports, and that a showing of actual fact might present a distribution somewhat different from the one under review. The whole southern border of Vermont, save the extreme easterly and westerly townships, is marked as belonging to the desolate region, thus carrying out the conditions of the adjoining Berkshire (Mass.) country; and from the southern border the portions thus marked rise contiguous through the space of nine townships (more than one-third the length of the State) before a break is reached at Woodstock. After this they stretch again almost unbroken to the northern boundary.

We are glad to see that the Grand Jury has indicted Major Clark of the Southern Club, who treated us the other day to an exhibition of a Southern "shooting affray," or "street fight," or "personal difficulty," between two gentlemen in Twenty-fourth Street, just outside of the Club. A most disgusting exhibition it was, but a faithful reproduction of the original article. First there was the quarrel in the club hall, a trumpery, childish affair, about the proper manner of returning a borrowed book. Then there was the usual altercation, containing words that no gentleman could submit to without trying to murder somebody. Then there was the adjournment to the sidewalk and the production of a pistol by the injured man. The other, being unarmed, then took refuge behind a common friend, and tried to interpose him between himself and the possible balls, but had to receive the fire over the friend's shoulder. Then there was the running of both parties round a cart, one firing and the other dodging; then the mad flight of the defender into a hotel to borrow a weapon from the clerk, so that he might have it out with the aggressor. The performance could not have been more perfect or more ruffianly if it had taken place in the streets of Jackson, Miss., or Sylvania, Ga. Neither Barnum nor Buffalo Bill could have got it as well done in his circus, and we trust a New York jury and a faithful Recorder or City Judge will express their appreciation of it.

In a recent review of the Tenth Census report upon the "Social Statistics of Cities," we commented upon the excessive rate of taxation in Hartford, Conn., and professed our inability to explain it. The Board of Trade of that city has now furnished us an official explanation, which is that the statement in the census report was a gross error. The tax per capita in Hartford for 1880 was not $30, but $20.15. Since we have, although innocently, disseminated an evil report concerning our neighbor, we shall endeavor to make reparation by quoting some of the figures given by the Board of Trade in the annual report of its Secretary. It seems that, estimating the population by the registered vote in the years of Presidential elections, it increased from about 42,500 in 1880 to about 51,500 in 1888, while the individual tax averaged for the nine years $19.66, and was for 1888 only $18.67. During this period the city has expended, in reduction of debt and in extraordinary disbursements, more than $1,100,000, the result being shown in a new railroad station and other public buildings, city parks and water-works, and other improvements of a permanent character. It is thought that no more expensive improvements will be necessary for some time to come, and that the rate of taxation will be still further reduced. The report presents many other particulars concerning the growth of the city.

The Duke of Marlborough has entered the lists in behalf of bimetallism, and has essayed to break a lance with Mr. Robert Giffen in the columns of the London *Times*. Mr. Giffen had written a smashing letter to support the thesis that neither one country, nor any group of countries, nor the whole world, could maintain by legislation a par of exchange between silver and gold on any basis whatever in the face of varying conditions of supply and demand. This is the contention of economists with a very few exceptions, and is sustained by Mr. Giffen with great vigor. The Duke, in his reply, falls into more errors than we have space to enumerate, but one of them deserves special notice. He points to America as a bright and shining example of sound principles of finance carried into practice, and assumes that all the kinds of currency in circulation here, greenbacks, bank-notes, gold certificates, and silver certificates, are legal tender. "Here," he says,

> "is one of the wealthiest nations of the world, with the most unlimitable resources, establishing a system of legal tender on a basis which is at complete variance with Mr. Giffen's opinions, and all Mr. Giffen has to say is that their theory is rotten. The fact is, we are completely behind America in our conceptions of currency and legal tenders. If we cannot arrive at the millennium of bimetallism, is there any reason why we are to remain in a species of patriarchal condition provided for us by Lord Liverpool and Sir Robert Peel, and refuse to stir an inch from the conditions of currency which were suitable to England when her trade was a tithe of what it is at the end of this century?"

The Duke has good reasons, no doubt, for admiring American finance, but his expression of them in the *Times* is misleading. The only legal tenders in this country are greenbacks and gold and silver *coin* of full weight. All the other things circulate by virtue of their redeemableness. In fact, the system of Lord Liverpool and Sir Robert Peel, which the Duke considers so much behind the age, is, in its essence, the American system to-day. The greenbacks and bank-notes correspond to the uncovered issue of the Bank of England notes, which are really secured by the Government's debt of fifteen millions to the bank. The gold and silver certificates are like the excess of Bank of England notes over and above the fifteen, million issue, *i. e.*, they represent coin in the Treasury dollar for dollar. The greenbacks are themselves a Government debt protected by a gold reserve equal to 30 per cent. of their face. The latter are slightly different from anything in the English system, but the difference is scarcely material in the aggregate of the currency afloat,

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The so-called "Grace Contract" which the Government of Peru has signed with its English bondholders is probably the most remarkable document of the kind ever executed. It is called, in the resolution authorizing it which the Peruvian Congress passed in October last, "A contract cancelling the foreign

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debt of Peru." Under its provisions the bondholders release the Government, "fully, absolutely, and irrevocably, from all responsibility for the loans of 1869, 1870, and 1872," and in return the Government cedes to the bondholders "all the railways of the State for the term of sixty-six years," and the product of its guano beds for an indefinite period. During five years from the delivery of each railway the bondholders shall have exclusive right to build extensions, and they bind themselves to maintain the lines and their rolling-stock in good condition and to construct such stations as good service and public convenience require. The Government cedes to the bondholders, without remuneration, all available State lands which may be necessary for railways, stations, shops, and other buildings, and pledges its assistance in acquiring possession of private lands needed for such purposes. Free use of the quays is also ceded, and the admission free of duty of locomotives, steam and electric motors for the lines and factories, rolling stock of all kinds, sleepers, coal, and all material used in construction and repairs. The Government reserves the right to regulate passenger tariffs upon the lines, below a specified maximum, and freights are to be settled by agreement between the Government and the bondholders. The rates for the transfer of troops and war material of the Government are specified in the contract. The lease of the railways carries with it the telegraph and telephone lines established in connection with them. The bondholders promise to build certain extensions and make certain repairs within specified periods, under penalty of fines and of final forfeiture of the lines to the Government in case of failure.

In addition to the cession of its railways the Government cedes the entire product of its guano beds up to the amount of 3,000,000 English tons, and the admission, free of duty, of machinery and material required for working them; and if the 3,000,000 limit cannot be reached, the Government shall not be held responsible for the difference. When the limit has been reached, the beds are to revert to the Government. At the end of the sixty-six years' lease the railways are to be returned to the Government free of all liabilities, with all their rolling-stock, and all in good condition. During the lease of the mines and railways the Government shall pay to the bondholders thirty-three annuities of £80,000 each. The contract is hedged about with conditions and penalties in all directions, and all differences as to its interpretation must be settled by the courts of the country. The Government appears to have given over to its creditors its chief sources of income, to be used by them not merely for their benefit, but for that of the country itself. The bondholders cannot carry out their agreements and not vastly benefit the country by extending its railway lines, enlarging the working capacity of its guano beds, and opening up large tracts of agricultural country which are now lying idle. Both sides to the contract appear to be well protected, and to have combined for mutual benefit.

Great expectations seem to have been aroused among the inhabitants of the Isthmus of Panama by the arrival there of the commission of French engineers appointed to investigate and report upon the abandoned canal. This is natural, but the reports sent out by correspondents of the opinions and prophecies of the commissioners should not be taken too seriously. The commission are actually in the employ of the "provisional administrator" (receiver) of the bankrupt canal company, their fees and expenses being provided for by something analogous to an issue of receiver's certificates, and they will naturally be disposed to do and say what they can to justify their employment. The state of public opinion and the condition of financial affairs in France are more important factors in this problem than the after-dinner speeches of M. Germain, the head of the commission. Here is what the Paris correspondent of the London *Times* has to report upon that subject, in a review of the French money market, published on December 30. M. Blowitz, (the correspondent), it should be remembered, was one of M. de Lesseps's thick-and-thin supporters down to the day of the final catastrophe:

"The collapse of the Panama Canal Company, which became an acknowledged fact in the first days of the year, has cost the French savings a sum of nearly seventy-four millions sterling ($370,000,000), and as by far the largest part of the colossal amount has been sent out of the country, it will never return in the shape of dividends or otherwise. It may be considered as irretrievably lost. A commission has now been constituted to investigate the merits of the enterprise and the possibility of carrying it out with a capital reasonable enough to be got afresh from the public; but it is generally felt that this commission is simply to act as pallbearers to a scheme which had not been sufficiently studied at the outset, and in the management of which enthusiasm and sentimentalism stood in place of sober calculation and business-like appreciation of possibilities."

There was nothing in the known deliberations of the "Reconciliation Conference" which met early this month in Vienna, and adjourned after a brief sitting, to foreshadow the sanguine cable announcement that the object of the Conference had been fully attained, and all the differences between the Czechs and the Germans settled. As the party leaders had assembled in obedience to the direct wish of the Emperor, who probably became alarmed at the threatened withdrawal of all the German Deputies from the Vienna Reichsrath—an act which would have rendered constitutional government in Cisleithania practically impossible—it was to be expected that some sort of truce would follow the strife between Germans and Czechs, which has gained in bitterness since Count Taaffe first instituted his "reconcillation policy," ten years ago. Undoubtedly the Governor of Bohemia, Count Thun, who had become obnoxious alike to the Germans and the ultra-radical Young Czechs, will be withdrawn; the German Deputies who had withdrawn from the Diet at Prague will reënter it; and, very likely, the German element in Count Taaffe's Cabinet will be reinforced by the appointment of two or more Liberal Germans in place of the most pronounced pro-Slavic members. The Conference considered the German demands for the establishment of purely German local courts in those districts of Bohemia where only that language is spoken, for the division of the Appellate Court at Prague into a German and Czech Senate, and the provision of other double administrative machinery; and the very fact that the German cause appears to have been generally successful, argues against the stability of a peace obtained through concessions on the Czech side only.

The differences between the two nationalities date back to the troubles of the Reformation. The opposition of the Czechs to the present political order of things in the Empire is based on the claim that the lands of the "crown of St. Wenceslas"—Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia — never surrendered their rights of autonomy, and that while in 1526 they elected a prince of the Hapsburg dynasty King of Bohemia, the Emperor of Austria is not legally King of Bohemia unless crowned as such at Prague. The demand for the coronation of Francis Joseph having recently been unequivocally refused by Count Taaffe in his reply to the interpellation of Herr Plener, the leader of the German Opposition in the Reichsrath, and the Germans having carried their point at the conference, it would appear that the Czech part in the "settlement of all differences" consisted simply in the recognition of the force of circumstances, and the submission to the will of the Emperor, whose personal popularity is as great in Prague as it is in Vienna. Nor must it be forgotten that the dissensions within the ranks of the Czechs themselves—that is to say, between the Old Czechs and the Young Czechs—are only less radical and acrimonious than the national differences between Slavs and Germans. It was only a few weeks ago that the proposal of the Municipal Council of Prague to erect a memorial tablet to John Huss in the new museum building caused the most violent division of sentiment between those who glorified Huss as a Bohemian patriot and those who execrated him as a heretic. The Young Czechs, under the leadership of Dr. Gregr and through their mouthpiece, the *Narodni Listy*, attacked the clerico-feudal opposition of the Schönborns and Schwarzenbergs to the erection of the tablet with a vehemence generally reserved for their German opponents. It is safe to say that, so long as Count Taaffe remains Premier, whatever advantages the Germans have gained are but temporary; that the Czechs are quite willing to bide their time, and that, if Taaffe attempts to rally to his support the Liberal Germans, it is only because he cannot, without endangering the very existence of the monarchy, rely any longer on his allies up to the present time—that curious conglomerate of Czechs, Poles, Dalmatians, Slovenes, reinforced by the Roman Catholic clergy and the feudal nobility.

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THE NEGRO PROBLEM.

THERE is a bill before the Senate providing for Government aid "to persons of color" in emigrating from the Southern States to Africa. There was an interesting debate on it on Thursday, in which Senator Butler of South Carolina made an extremely able, but entirely philosophic, speech, which was answered by Senator Hoar of Massachusetts. Mr. Butler treated the presence in the Southern States of some 8,000,000 of colored people in a condition of discontented and, as far as human eye can see, of permanent, political and social inferiority, as by far the most serious question of the day. He proposes, therefore, that they should be encouraged to emigrate, with Government aid, to the great African Continent from which their ancestors came, and which is now being opened up to civilization exactly as the American Continent was in the sixteenth century, and in which the right men can found, if they please, a considerable number of powerful States. The English have already founded one at the Cape of Good Hope. The Dutch have founded two further north. The "Congo Free State," which has been sketched out rather than established, is not yet a political community, but its charter offers splendid opportunities to energetic colonists for whom the climate has no terrors, to found an empire. It contains everything that an empire needs except civilized and acclimated settlers.

Senator Butler's contention that if the Southern negroes are fit to participate on equal terms in the political and social life of the Southern States, they are *à fortiori* fit to undertake the great work of reclaiming and regenerating Africa, or at all events to establish prosperous communities in the portions of it which European enterprise has now opened, is, therefore, not an unreasonable one. In fact, if there be such a thing as appointed destiny for great bodies of men, it would seem as if it ought to be the destiny of the blacks who have been brought here, and to a certain extent trained in civilization, to go back to the cradle of their race and spread over the Dark Continent the blessings they have purchased at so fearful a price. A more splendid opportunity has never been offered to any people.

But, of course, the negroes cannot be forced to emigrate. Nor could transportation be provided for them, if they declared their willingness to go to-morrow. All the great emigrations of history have been voluntary emigrations—the movements of bold and enterprising men who sought, "under new skies and amid a strange vegetation," better conditions of living than they had at home. The great movements of population which overthrew the Roman Empire, whether undertaken for colonization or conquest, were voluntary. All the really successful colonies of the modern world have been founded in the same way. The two greatest emigrations the world has seen, those of the Irish and Germans to this country, have been made willingly, and the expense, which has been enormous, has been borne by the emigrants themselves, generally poor people. In fact, it is useless to think of emigration on a scale so great as to produce important social and political results unless it is undertaken with zeal and hopefulness by the emigrants themselves. Unwilling, faint-hearted exiles have never founded a State yet, or added to the strength of one already founded.

Consequently, until we see some sign among the leading colored men of a desire to lead their people to Africa, and of a desire among considerable bodies of their people to follow them, it is useless to expend much thought on African colonization as a solution of the negro problem. There is in our mind no question that, if they were really as worthy of American citizenship as some of their friends think they are, they would be glad to avail themselves of the African opening to get away from degrading social conditions, and realize such dreams of race greatness and capacity as their best men doubtless cherish. But greatness cannot be thrust on white men: why should we suppose it can be thrust on black men? The very reasons which make their presence here obnoxious to white people operate to prevent their departure.

There is, however, it is proper to observe, a rapidly growing sympathy at the North with Southern perplexity over the negro problem, and a growing disposition to listen even to such heroic solutions of it as that proposed by Senator Butler. Even those who were not shocked by the carpet-bag experiment, and have been since then disposed to make light of the Southerner's troubles with his colored brother, are beginning to "view with alarm" the political prospect created by the increase of the negro population, and by the continued inability of Southern society to absorb or assimilate them in any sense, physical, social, or political.

What is doing most to intensify this alarm is the extraordinary nature of the measures devised by the friends of the negro for his elevation to an equality with the white man These measures are of such a character that tens of thousands of philanthropic and conscientious men at the North are beginning to ask themselves to-day whether the highest interests of the American commonwealth do not call for a resolute and peremptory resistance to any further political sacrifices for the negro's benefit. The first, and the greatest that any civilized community has ever made, was the sudden admission to the suffrage of a million of recently emancipated slaves belonging to the least civilized race in the world, and this in a State avowedly founded on the intelligence and political experience of the voter. No nation has ever done this, or anything like this, for the benefit of aliens of any race or creed. It was a great leap in the dark, the ultimate consequences of which no man now living can foresee. It involved greater risks than war on the largest scale with any civilized Power. The mistake of going to war can always be cured by making peace, but the mistake of bestowing the suffrage on a large body of people unfit for it is one for which there is no remedy. A very large portion of the Northern public is asking to-day: "Was not this enough? Ought we not to stop here, and let the negro work out his own salvation? Who or what is he, that we should put the interests of the 55,000,000 whites of this continent in peril for his sake? Is it not to be feared that the venal and easily intimidated and cajoled vote which we now allow him to cast, may exert a profoundly deteriorating influence on our whole system of government, without doing him any perceptible good?"

So far from answering this question satisfactorily, his friends are preparing and urging on the community for his benefit changes of the most serious character in the working of the Government. The most valuable and successful feature of the Constitution, the one which has excited most admiration and is producing most imitation in other countries, is the relegation to State jurisdiction of all local concerns, and especially of police and education. This is really the corner-stone of our system. Well, we have been witnessing, during the past few years, two attacks on it, of the most insidious character, and both for the benefit of the negro. One proposes to put the national Government in charge of education in the States where negroes abound, and relieve the local taxpayers of all responsibility for his intellectual condition, and create a bureau in Washington like that in Paris, which enables the Minister of Public Instruction, according to M. Duruy's boast, to tell any visitor what page of what book any class of any school in France is reading at any given moment.

The second sacrifice which the country is asked to make for the negro is also a great one, namely, the centralization at Washington of the control of State elections, and the concession to the General Government of as much local police power as may enable it to guarantee the colored population complete security, both of person, property, and political rights. These measures have not passed. They are not likely to pass. But they are renewed year after year, and pushed, under one form or another, with a tenacity which is naturally and properly alarming people. If the Northern public were to witness such attempts with indifference, it would show that a complete modification of the Government in the direction of a centralized Cæsarism was not far off. And they are humiliating as well as alarming, because they propose to adapt a political structure, specially created for the benefit of valor, foresight, industry, and intelligence, to the special needs of the ignorant, the weak, the lazy, and incompetent. It is somewhat like a proposal to make such alterations in the house of a decent and prosperous mechanic that tramps may feel at home in it. Until these attempts are abandoned, the negro problem will continue to agitate the nation in ways not propitious for the negro's future.

HOW TO CHOOSE A SMOKE INSPECTOR.

THERE are a great many droll incidents in the testimony taken by the Committee on the

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Ballot-Box Forgery. One such is the statement of R. G. Wood that, after he had put the forged paper in Gov. Foraker's hands, and Foraker had used it "for what it was worth," he (Wood) recommended him to retract it as soon as possible, because Murray was about to make an affidavit that it was a forgery. "You had better be lively about it," said Wood to Foraker, "because Murray told me if I did not get the paper back, he would make an affidavit. I told Murray that if I could not get it, *I would make an affidavit with him*"—*i. e.*, an affidavit that the paper which he had put into Foraker's hands in exchange for the latter's recommendation of him for an office was a forgery. Forgers are generally very liberal with affidavits. There is no kind of coin which they dispense more freely, but it is seldom that they proclaim an intention to expose themselves under oath, as Wood says he did in this case. Probably he lied when he told the Committee that he told Foraker that he had such an intention. Probably all his testimony is false, except where it is confirmed by others.

There is one important part of it, however, that *is* confirmed by Foraker himself. It is that part which relates to the dicker between himself and the Governor for the office of Smoke Inspector of Cincinnati. This is an office in the gift of the Mayor of the city. Wood was a candidate for the place. There was another candidate, perhaps more than one. Wood testifies that he asked the Governor for his influence; that the Governor replied he could get the office for him if it was not pledged, but that he wanted Wood "to do a little hustling for him." This was to "hustle around" and get a paper showing that Campbell, the Democratic candidate for Governor, had entered into a certain corrupt contract.

Foraker's testimony as to his bargain with Wood is even more explicit. He told Wood first that as he was willing to recommend him to the Mayor, he (Wood) "should be willing to do a favor for him, and that he wanted that paper," meaning the ballot-box paper signed by Campbell. Wood promised to get it. This was on the 15th of August. Two days later he received a letter from Wood saying that the Mayor thought favorably of his application, and that a letter from the Governor would be a great help, and that as soon as the Smoke Inspectorship was settled he would go to Washington and get the paper. This was very sharp on Wood's part, but the Governor was sharper. The latter wrote in reply (August 19) "that he (Wood) would get the letter of recommendation from him as he had promised when he (Foraker) got the information Wood had promised, *and not before.*" But although he would not give Wood the letter to the Mayor before getting the ballot-box paper, he did give him one to President Harrison recommending him "as an old soldier and an inventor of merit."

Wood went to Washington and "hustled" there and along the road until the 9th of September, when he returned to Cincinnati and telegraphed to Foraker that he had procured the paper. Meanwhile Foraker had had a conversation with the Mayor on the cars about the Smoke Inspectorship, and had obtained from him a promise to defer action a few days. On the 11th, Wood appeared at Columbus with the paper, which he delivered to the Governor. Thereupon the latter wrote the letter he had promised recommending Wood for the office of Smoke Inspector. The bargain had been fulfilled on both sides, with the trifling exception that the paper which Foraker received was fraudulent, while that which he gave was genuine.

In one sense, however, the paper that Foraker gave was as false and fraudulent as the one he received. The office of Smoke Inspector may or may not be one requiring much scientific knowledge, but it certainly requires some, and it also requires an honest man. Under the rules of a good civil service, the process of filling the office would have been something like this: Wood and all the other candidates would have been put through a competitive examination. Their eyesight would have been tested first, to ascertain whether they could see smoke distinctly at the height of tall chimneys. Then they would have been asked what kinds of coal produce the most smoke, and what kinds the least, and also required to identify the kinds used in Cincinnati, and tell how the firing should be done in order to make the least smoke, and what kinds of apparatus for smoke-consuming produce the best results. Then all the candidates would have been required to furnish certificates of good moral character from persons of known standing in the community. Nobody would have been interrogated as to the shortest route from Cincinnati to Paraguay, or the height of the great wall of China, or the use of the Greek digamma, or the age of the obelisk of Luxor, or any of the facetiæ which the Johnnys and Mikes and Charlies of high and low degree put into the mouths of the civil-service examining boards. After the examination had been completed on these lines, the candidate showing the most knowledge and the best character would have got the appointment, and that would have been the *democratic* method of filling the office, because all the candidates would have been served alike. Nobody would have had any extraneous advantage, or any "pull" from the Barnacle family, or recommendation from a distant Governor, to enable him to get something above his deserts in a contest with his fellow-citizens.

Contrast this method with the one actually followed. It is almost certain that if Wood had been appointed Smoke Inspector, he would have known nothing whatever about the duties of the office. It is entirely certain that his hand would have been behind his back to receive any fees that smoke-producers were willing to pay rather than be disturbed. It is most probable that he would have found too much smoke in places where fees were not forthcoming, and would have systematically blackmailed the owners. If there were any way to make private gain at the expense of public interests, he would have found it out and put it into practice, and in the course of time would have become a local "boss" of distinction and a person to be reckoned with at all county and State conventions. That these things have not happened is due to luck altogether. The Governor did all that he had agreed to do, and all that he could do. The paper turned out to be a forgery, and the forgery was discovered. It might have been a forgery, and yet not have been proved such to the satisfaction of the Governor and the Mayor, in which case pride and consistency would have required that Wood should be appointed and retained in office to spite the Democrats. It turned out that before the Mayor had acted upon Foraker's recommendation, an ugly "record" was produced against Wood. He had been "run in" by the police on some former occasion, and the facts had been published in the newspapers. But this was only another streak of luck in favor of the public and against Wood and Foraker.

The case is a typical example of the spoils system, so far as methods go. Not all the people who get office by means of dirty bargains like this are forgers and perjurers, or capable of becoming such. But then there is no reasonable guarantee that they may not be. What Foraker wanted was not a good Smoke Inspector, but a club to beat Campbell with, and instead of paying for it out of his own pocket, or out of the Committee funds, as he might properly have done, he tried to saddle the expense on the taxpayers of Cincinnati. He says that he wanted all the time to have a competent man appointed, but the only evidence of competency he required was the ballot-box paper with Campbell's signature attached to it. He never stipulated that Wood should know how to doctor a smoky chimney, or even know smoke when he saw it, but only that he should produce the desired evidence against Campbell. This is the way the spoils system works always. It does not necessarily yield us Woods, but it provides no safeguards against them.

AN AMERICAN MYSTERY.

A RECEIVER'S report of the *Star* newspaper company of this city has been filed which shows obligations aggregating nearly $761,000, besides interest, with less than $20,000 of assets. The largest creditor is Collis P. Huntington, who has a personal claim of over $610,000 against the company, and another one of nearly $80,000, which stands in the name of one of his employees. Among other claims is one of $1,007.56 from the Grant Monument Association, the amount raised by the newspaper by means of appeals for popular subscriptions, but never turned over to the Association. According to the receiver's showing, Mr. Huntington has invested in the newspaper nearly $700,000 since he took possession of it in September, 1885, with little or no chance of ever getting a cent of it back again.

There is in the foregoing plain statement of facts a mystery which becomes even more inexplicable when further details are given. Mr. Huntington has been spending all that money upon a lifeless enterprise, for the

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Star newspaper was dead when he bought it, and it cannot be said to have been alive for a second since that time. John Kelly, as Boss of Tammany Hall, came into possession of it in 1877, when it had little more than a name, and a disreputable one at that, for its total assets. He built up a circulation for it by requiring every applicant for a liquor license to subscribe annually for two copies, and by compelling every Tammany office-holder and dependent to take it. He gave it further sustenance by means of official advertising and that of contractors and other people who desired his "pull" in getting contracts and offices from the city. But when he fell, after his futile effort to defeat Cleveland in the Presidential election of 1884, it went down with him, and in February, 1885, it suspended publication as a daily, keeping up a precarious and feeble existence as a Sunday paper. It remained practically dead till September of that year, when it was revived, and William Dorsheimer became its editor, resigning a few months later the office of United States District Attorney, in order to retain the position. Under Mr. Dorsheimer's direction it reappeared to the public eye as a daily newspaper with eight pages and all the outward forms of actual life. It was soon afterwards moved into capacious and expensive quarters on Broadway, but the vital breath refused to enter into it. Nobody was ever seen reading it; it gave no indications of remunerative advertising support, and if it had a bona-fide circulation anywhere, the outward signs of it could not be detected. Yet it went on day by day, coming out with the same regularity as a genuine and living newspaper, and is, we believe, still doing so. For a time there were occasional pretences that it was actually gaining a circulation, but these were usually made after the city had been freely sprinkled with "sample copies," and were consequently not convincing.

Nearly two years ago Mr. Dorsheimer died, and it was generally supposed that he would take the paper with him, so to speak, but this proved not to be the case. Its daily ghostly appearance continued, and the mystery was greater than ever. His course in regard to it was always puzzling. He had no training as an editor, but was a lawyer of recognized ability and a political speaker and leader whose merits had won for him high public office. When President Cleveland appointed him United States Attorney for this district, the selection commanded the approval of men of all parties. That he should resign an office so honorable and so obviously congenial, to enter, at his advanced time of life, upon a calling of which he was ignorant, was surprising, but not inexplicable. He was not the first man, nor will he be the last, to reach the profound conviction that his talents fitted him to do something else much better than what he had spent his life in doing, especially if that something else were the editing of a newspaper. He might have deluded himself by thinking that there was a great future for the *Star;* but if he had that delusion at the outset, it must have been dispelled long before the end of the first year. After that, life must have been a daily torture to him. He was a man of education, of scholarly tastes, and considerable literary attainments; yet every morning he was confronted at his own breakfast table with a newspaper, of his own editing, which must have offended every taste which he most desired to gratify. It was, in the first place, a fraud; for it pretended to be a newspaper, published and sold like other newspapers, and it was nothing of the kind. In the second place, the exigencies of its fraudulent existence compelled that it should be filled every day with "sensational matter" of the worst description, in the desperate hope of attracting attention. The failure to command respectable support drove it to seek the other kind, and it became more and more every day the champion of men and causes which other newspapers refused to champion. To see all this spread before his eyes each morning, to know that he was personally responsible for it, and to know also that the degradation involved in it was all in vain, since its only object, the bringing in of money, had not been attained, must have been a tax upon human endurance which few men would be able long to sustain.

But if Mr. Dorsheimer's course was mystifying, what shall be said in explanation of Mr. Huntington's? Why has he gone on sustaining a bogus newspaper until he has thrown away, as completely as if he had burned bank-notes for the amount, $700,000? He is one of the most successful men of his day, one of the practical men of affairs who have made vast fortunes by their indomitable energy, shrewdness, and perseverance. In an ordinary business transaction he would bring to bear all his experience and sagacity to secure for himself as large a return as possible for every dollar which he invested in it. Yet he has put a fortune into a spurious publication which was and is absolutely hopeless, which can in no manner do him service or aid him in any cause, and which brings him nothing but discredit. When he stops paying for its publication, it will die and leave no trace.

The $700,000 which he has thus wasted would have founded a great museum, or a great library, or even a great university, which would have been an honor to his name for all time. The endowment fund which Ezra Cornell gave for the establishment of Cornell University was only $500,000. The Astor Library was founded with $400,000, and the Boston Public Library with $50,000, and all its property in buildings and land to-day is worth less than $400,000. The beautiful and valuable collection and equipment of the new Slater Museum at Norwich, Conn., cost less than $30,000. The sum squandered would have been of immeasurable service also in carrying out Mr. Huntington's own ideas about barring Central Africa to the slave-trader. In any of these directions the money would have been devoted to the enlightenment and happiness of the human race, and such a use of it, one would suppose, would most have commended itself to the possessor of millions.

THE UNION PACIFIC-NORTHWESTERN AGREEMENT.

THE decision of Chairman Walker upon the Union Pacific-Northwestern contract is moderate in its language and convincing in its conclusion. It states that the contract is "hostile to the spirit and intent with which the Association was organized," and that the "presidents' agreement was violated by the making of the contract in question." The point at issue may be stated thus: The American policy has always been to encourage railroad building without any restrictions as to the needs for new lines or the effects upon the older roads. Pooling was an attempt at regulation, by the roads themselves, of the excessive competition thus induced. For the reason that pooling was partly successful in doing this, it was opposed by the people of the Western States and forbidden by the law of 1887. Since it is especially true that no railroad lives to itself alone, the lack of unity among the railways west of Chicago led in 1888 to the grossest abuses known to our transportation history. The case seemed growing worse, and the loss of revenue gave rise to great alarm. Then followed the bankers' and presidents' meeting a year ago, from which sprang the Inter-State Railway Association as a basis for harmony of action among the competing lines.

The principle of the Association is simple. It is that reasonably remunerative tariffs can best be maintained, not by attempts at stifling all rivalry, which under our national policy is impossible, but by agreements defining the conditions under which the competition shall be carried on. Among the agreed conditions we find these: that changes in rates embracing competitive territory shall be subject to the Association, and shall not be made by any line independently; that divisions of revenue between roads interchanging competitive traffic shall also be subject to Association rules, because otherwise changes might be made as secret inducements for the diversion of traffic; and that the Association shall have some oversight of the apportionment of competitive business. If the rates agreed to in the Union Pacific-Northwestern contract had really been put in force in certain parts of the territory covered, says Mr. Walker, there would at once have been a rate war. If the Union Pacific can permanently give better terms to one line at Omaha than to another, the competitors of the favored line must make concessions to travellers and shippers, else the traffic will all seek the favored route. This presents the exact condition of affairs which the Inter-State Railway Association was organized to terminate, and which proved so disastrous in 1888. In like manner, if the Union Pacific gives to the Northwestern all its unconsigned freight (freight not marked for a special road east of Omaha), the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul, for example, must either build westward to get another Pacific connection, suffer loss of traffic, or spend large sums in expenses and inducements to shippers west of the Missouri River to consign

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their freight by that particular road—the latter alternative being always doubtful of success without a cut in rates. Such a cut would be met by retaliation, and this by other cuts indefinitely. In short, the Union Pacific-Northwestern contract would apparently substitute an individual benefit for a general one.

The Walker report can hardly prove pleasant reading for the presidents of the two roads concerned. President Adams of the Union Pacific a year ago was one of the foremost in urging the great need of an association for the correction of existing evils. He was chairman of the committee which drew up the original draft of the plan for organization, and, in presenting it to the presidents, spoke in favor of some action of the kind. In subsequent addresses the same line of reasoning was followed. Now, if Chairman Walker's conclusions be accepted, Mr. Adams and Mr. Hughitt appear to have been the first presidents who, without consultation with their colleagues, have, by a ten years' contract, formally violated the agreement which one of them at least did so much to form. To this charge of a breach of faith the evident reply is, that the railroad situation has changed during the year. This is true, although the change has come almost entirely from extensions of existing lines. It should be remembered that there is a clear difference between individual roads and a system of roads. Changes in the existing order by reason of consolidation or through ownership or lease are legitimate so far as associations are concerned, and the policies so formed, as to the former lines thus combined, are outside the province of Association control. Had the Union Pacific and the Northwestern been amalgamated, no decision of the Chairman would have been asked for: such centralization brings its own problems. But, on the other hand, the Inter-State Railway Association was formed to preserve harmony between individual competitors, and in the case in question the two roads preserve their independence and retain separate membership. Whether they can be both a virtual combination and at the same time separate companies, is the question. The contracting roads think that the Association will be remodelled to allow this. At all events, it is certainly to be hoped that the violation of the terms of the Association agreement will not give rise to disputes which might bring back again upon the Western lines the disasters of 1888.

IBSEN AND HIS TRANSLATORS.

America has lagged a long way behind Europe in realizing that the Norwegian dramatist Ibsen is a genius. But, having at last discovered that the rest of the world considers him a great writer, we seem to have determined to make up for being belated by now talking a great deal about him. Unhappily, the quality of what is said or written is by no means equal to the quantity. It is hardly reasonable, perhaps, to expect this country to produce a critic who has studied Ibsen's books in their original language. The Ibsen enthusiasm is not yet so serious with us that any one seems willing to learn Danish for the sake of reading that author's productions as he wrote them. Yet this has been done, we are told, repeatedly in England. All his published books (except his first drama) are available in German translations, but no American seems disposed to undertake their study in that language either, and as yet so few of the poet's books have been translated into English that entirely sound conclusions as to his philosophy based upon a study of these alone are impossible; while the works which so far have been put into English illustrate only one phase of his authorship, and that is not the side, perhaps, which will have most weight in finally determining his position as an *artist*. The result is, that the notices of Ibsen which have appeared in American journals are, for the most part, either ignorant and valueless, or simply reproductions—disgraceful plagiarisms many of them—of English critical articles.

A reader, therefore, who has a serious interest in the poet's life and views had best content himself, in addition to reading such of the dramas as are obtainable in his mother tongue, with a perusal of the one thoroughly good critical article available to those who read English only, namely, Dr. Georg Brandes's masterly analysis, to be found in the volume entitled, in the American translation, 'Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century.' This one article is worth everything else that has been written in English concerning Ibsen. For a lighter treatment, Mr. Edmund Gosse's articles contributed to the *Fortnightly Review* will be found pleasant and not unprofitable reading. The first of these was published in the number for January, 1873, and was reprinted, after revision, as a chapter of his 'Studies in the Literature of Northern Europe,' while the second article, which deals with Ibsen's social dramas, appeared in January, 1889. Mr. Philip H. Wicksteed's study of "Peer Gynt," printed in the *Contemporary Review* for August, 1889, is worthy of mention as affording some idea of one of Ibsen's works which, perhaps, there is small likelihood of our ever having the opportunity to read in English.

Out of Ibsen's eighteen published works, seven have now been translated into English, three of these having been produced by several hands. The earliest translation was that of his bulkiest book—an adjective which can be applied to it, however, only by comparison with his other works, for it contains in all little more than five hundred small duodecimo pages. It is in reality two volumes in one, two related dramas under one common title, "Kejser og Galilæer" ("Emperor and Galilean: a world-historic Drama"), the first part being called "Cæsar's Apostasy," and the second "The Emperor Julian." It was published on October 16, 1873, a second edition appearing near the end of the same year, and the translation into English, by Catherine Ray, was issued in 1876. Miss Ray's book, which contained a brief introductory notice, does not seem to have circulated in the United States, and is now out of print.

The next translation, taking them in chronological order, was that of the drama best known in America because of recent stage representations in Boston and New York, and commonly called "Nora," or "A Doll's House." The first translator, Mr. T. Weber, instead of retaining the author's title, named his book—which was published in Copenhagen in 1880—"Nora," after its heroine. It is not likely that many copies of it reached this country. A second English translation, by Henrietta Frances Lord, was published in London in 1882. Miss Lord also chose to call her translation "Nora," and she prefixed to it a preliminary notice, of some twenty pages, which she called a "Life" of Henrik Ibsen, but which is not so much a biographical sketch as a critical notice, of considerable interest, of the work which she had translated. It is this translation which D. Appleton & Co. have just published in a beautiful little volume which they have entitled "The Doll's House."

The text seems to be entirely identical in the two prints; but while the misstatement that the work is translated from the *Norwegian* (it should be Danish) is allowed to stand, and the misprint of the original title of the book which occurs in Miss Lord's edition remains uncorrected, superfluous care has been exercised to remove from the pages of the introductory notice all trace of the previous publication of the volume, and the date which was subscribed to it, "November, 1882," has been erased—a proceeding which does not commend itself. The change of title, also, is not entirely felicitous. Doubtless a retention of the author's title is better than the coining of a new one; but in the former case the title should be strictly translated, and care should be taken that the meaning which the author may have intended to convey by it is not lost. The original work was called "Et Dukkehjem"—*A Doll Home* (not A Doll's Home nor A Doll's House); and readers familiar with Ibsen's original works, who realize that every word used by that author has distinct weight, may reasonably believe that he intended to intimate by this title that the heroine's environment was that of a doll, but not that she herself was necessarily so devoid of character as that term implies; and her action in the last scene of the play would seem to sustain this inference.

Still a third translation of "Et Dukkehjem," this time from the competent hand of Mr. William Archer, who is an enthusiastic admirer and very intelligent student of the poet, appeared during this last year. This translation was prepared for use in presenting the drama at the Novelty Theatre in London last June, and has been published in an edition limited to 115 copies, with a portrait of Ibsen and photographs of the actors in the various characters of the play. It has also been reprinted in volume one of the 'Prose Dramas of Henrik Ibsen,' which has just been issued by the John W. Lovell Company, as number two of "Lovell's Series of Foreign Literature," with an introduction, written for this edition, by Mr. Gosse. The volume contains three other plays, noticed below. The portrait of Ibsen which faces the title-page is from a good photograph taken in Munich about three years ago, but it is a reproduction by some cheap process, and the fine lines about the eyes and lips are lost, which seriously detracts from the value of the picture.

Miss Lord followed up her first translation by a version of one of Ibsen's strongest social dramas, "Gengangere" ("Ghosts"), which was printed in the pages of the socialistic journal *To-day*, where it was pretty much lost to the general reading public. Her translation was afterwards revised by Mr. Archer, and was one of three plays published under the editorship of Mr. Havelock Ellis in 1888 as one of the volumes of the "Camelot Series." The other two were "Samfundets Stötter" ("Pillars of Society"), published in 1878 and translated by Mr. Archer, and "En Folkefiende" ("An Enemy of Society"), originally published in 1882, and translated by Mrs. Eleanor Marx-Aveling. "Gengangere" had appeared originally in Copenhagen in December, 1881. This little volume, which is entitled "The Pillars of Society, and Other Plays," and which contains an introductory notice by Mr. Ellis, may be warmly commended. Mr. Arch-

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er's versions of "Ghosts" and "Pillars of Society" are also included in the Lovell Company reprint.

Ibsen's last two books, "Rosmersholm" (the name of a country estate), and "Fruen fra Havet" ("The Lady from the Sea"), were published in November, 1886, and November, 1888. Of the former no adequate translation has yet appeared, but the new Boston journal, the *Transatlantic*, is printing, in meagre weekly instalments, an attempt at a translation, which cannot, however, be considered a satisfactory performance. It bears the marks of ordinary hack work, and is far from conveying a proper conception of Ibsen's remarkable language. Another translation, by M. Carmichael, is printed in "Lovell's Series of Foreign Literature," but it is too free a rendering to be entirely satisfactory. 'The Lady from the Sea' was published in Berlin, by previous arrangement with the author, a week after the publication of the original in Copenhagen, the German translation being by Prof. Julius Hoffory, than whom no one could be more competent for the task. This German version Mr. G. R. Carpenter has retranslated into English, with fair success, and printed in the *Harvard Monthly* for November and December, 1889. Another translation of the book, direct from the original, has been prepared by Mrs. Marx-Aveling, and just published, with a brief introduction by Mr. Edmund Gosse, as one of the volumes of the "Cameo series," in London. No serious fault can be found with this translation, which places in the hands of American readers a readable version of one of Ibsen's most delightful works, and Mr. Gosse's note is excellent.

THE WHIGS OF 1832.—II.

LONDON, December 30, 1889.

ON the elections which in 1832 followed the passage of the Reform Act, the Whigs swept the country. The new constituencies, it was said, "remembered their political creators in the days of their youth." The Tories, it was thought, were not only routed but destroyed; supremacy had passed from one party to the other, and the authority of the Whigs was secured for at least half a century. Before the end of 1833 their popularity was on the wane. In 1834 Peel returned to office and almost held his own against the Opposition. The accession of the Queen did something to stave off the ruin of an enfeebled and discredited party. In 1839 the Whig leaders consented to hold office at the sacrifice both of reputation and of power; in 1841 the victors of 1832 were a defeated and unpopular minority.

Nor can it be said that the disasters of the Whigs were transitory. The whole set of English politics for the last sixty years has been in the direction of democracy; but democratic progress or development has not fostered the influence or the prestige of the Whigs. Peel, Palmerston, Beaconsfield, Gladstone, have each, in different ways and in different degrees, excited the enthusiasm of their followers; but Lord Grey lost his hold on popular feeling almost from the moment when the Reform Act became law. Lord Melbourne, who, though he was the head of a Whig Ministry, was never in truth a Whig, was never popular at all. Lord Russell, who embodied all the virtues, and, let it be added, all the weaknesses, proper to the last inheritor of the great Whig tradition, inspired confidence among his Parliamentary following, and commanded respect among all candid opponents, but he never, except for a very short period at the crisis of the Reform struggle, won the affection of the people or the trust of the public. In 1852 he was the admitted leader of the Liberals, but his Ministry was tottering to its fall, and (what, for the present purpose, is of more consequence) the achievements of 1832 were as much matters of mere history as the Revolution of 1689. Yet, and this is well worth noting, the period of time which separated 1832 from 1852 is exactly the same as that which separates 1870 from 1890. The dubious successes of 1870 have secured for Gladstone more popularity than the permanent victory of 1832 conferred upon the statesman whose pride it was to have introduced the Reform Act. The Whigs "had their hour." Why had they "their hour" only? The question is historically curious. The answer to it contains some permanent political instruction. But this instruction will be gained only by those inquirers who are content to explain the results of human conduct or feeling not by "a cause," but by the influence of combined causes.

The first and most obvious explanation of the fall of the Whigs was the want of a great Whig leader. The crisis of 1832 brought forward, happily for England, a group of estimable and honest politicians. It did not produce, among the Whigs at least, a single man of genius or a statesman of anything like first-rate ability. A critic may object that this statement overlooks the existence of Brougham. The alleged exception proves the soundness of the general assertion. Brougham's extraordinary talents and still more astounding energy are not open to question. His ability as a statesman is more than dubious; but, whatever be our estimate of his talents, no sane critic can count him among the Whigs. Had he remained a member of the House of Commons he might, it is likely enough, have become for a time the leader of the nation. That he would have continued in alliance with Melbourne and John Russell is, to any observer of character, incredible. Not only were the Whig leaders not statesmen, but (and this is a matter which deserves more attention than it has received) they were not trained officials, and they were forced to carry out a Liberal policy through a body of civil servants every one of whom inherited Tory traditions. The consequences were curious, and to the Whigs disastrous. Followers of Canning, like Palmerston, who had no real sympathy with reform, and Lord Melbourne, who seems to have thought the Reform Act at the best a regrettable necessity, obtained, and rightly obtained, in the Cabinet an influence out of proportion to any services they rendered as reformers, while subordinates who looked upon the rule of the Whigs as an unwarrantable usurpation of an authority which Providence had, so to speak, morally vested in the Tories, gave, it may be suspected, but half-hearted help in the designing of Liberal measures or the preparation of Whig budgets. Every line of the life of Lord John Russell deepens, it must in fairness to the English people be added, the conviction that his Lordship, if heir to all the hereditary virtues, was also the inheritor of the special fault of the Whigs—the incapacity to look beyond the ideas of the Whig connection to the interest and the feelings of the great public. Russell resigned to Peel the fame of repealing the Corn Laws solely because Lord Grey refused a seat in a Cabinet in which Palmerston should be Foreign Secretary. Let any one realize what this fact means, and he will understand why the leader of the Whigs never became the leader of the nation, and the Whigs of 1832 failed to guide the democratic movement of the last half century.

Another cause of weakness to the Whigs which was patent to every man in 1834 and 1835, is apt not to be estimated at its due importance by critics of to-day. The Tories possessed throughout Great Britain, and as Orangemen in Ireland, an amount both of power and of popular favor which resembled in kind the influence which Bismarck and his supporters now exert in Germany. The Tories, whatever their faults, had carried the country with triumph through the most desperate struggle in which England was ever engaged. At their head was the most competent administrator whom England had produced since the time of Pitt, and the most successful general of whom she could boast since the days of Marlborough. The great war, Waterloo, and Napoleon are to us traditions of the past. To the men of 1835 or even of 1840 they were living memories. From the generation who rallied round Peel and Wellington, the campaign of 1815 was less distant, both in time and in sentiment, than the war of secession is to the Americans of 1890. The triumphs of the war were almost as much the reproach of the Whigs as the glory of the Tories; for popular sentiment, at any rate, credited the Whig leaders with very dubious zeal in the contest with France. To all this must be added that the patriotism which popular delusion or gratitude attributes to Peel, did not prevent him from using with the utmost dexterity all the arms of opposition warfare. The Minister who is supposed to have given cheap bread to the people, took full advantage of the hostility of squires and farmers to free trade in corn, and gained full credit to himself for the partial failure of the efforts made by the Whigs to do justice to Catholics in Ireland, though the failure arose in great part from Tory indignation at every attempt to conciliate O'Connell, and from the systematic mutilation by a Tory House of Lords of legislation which carried out the principles of religious and civil equality formally recognized by the passing of the Catholic Emancipation Act. To the skill with which Peel transformed Toryism into Conservatism, and brought to the aid of the Conservative Opposition every possible source of party strength, no historian can refuse the admiration which is due to supreme ability. But the acknowledgment of Peel's surpassing genius as a parliamentary strategist is hardly consistent with honest recognition of his claim to high patriotism.

But the fall of the Whigs is at bottom due to a cause far more subtle than any matter of personal character or of political partisanship. Neither the deficiencies of Russell nor the talents of Peel, considerable as they both were, would, we may be sure, have been sufficient of themselves to bring about the permanent collapse of a great political party. The Revolution families who, for between fifty and sixty years, controlled the destinies of England, committed grave errors. Walpole, Pelham, Newcastle, for that matter, Chatham himself, were men who never committed faults, or who invariably preferred the welfare of the nation to their own or their party's interest. It were no rash assertion that the reformers of 1832 were, both in patriotism and in foresight, superior to the Whigs who followed Walpole. But it is impossible not to see, or rather to feel, that Walpole, and leaders far inferior to Walpole, represented the living forces of the nation. The spirit of the time (to use a vague expression which, though it may mislead, is almost the best term we have at hand for summing up the aggregate effect of a large number of indefinite causes) did, during a great part of the eighteenth century, favor the rule of the

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Revolution families. It did not in 1832 favor the rule of the Whigs. If this vague statement be brought down to a more definite form, it amounts to the assertion that, by one of the odd paradoxes of which history is full, the authors of the Reform Act represented rather the convictions of a past time than the sentiment of the day or the aspirations of the immediate future.

Mr. Leslie Stephen has somewhere said happily that we must not be deluded by the artificial division into centuries, but must remember that the "eighteenth century" stretched on in England to 1832. The observation is, if its meaning be fully appreciated, full of instruction. The French Revolution had in England temporarily arrested or diverted the course of progress. In 1832 there were lots of abuses, some great, some small, which, in the natural course of things, ought to have been swept away forty or fifty years earlier. The best of the Whig leaders had been trained by circumstances and position to take up the reforms natural to say 1790. The sweeping away of rotten boroughs, the establishment of civil and religious liberty, the emancipation of the Catholics, which ought, in accordance with Whig doctrine and very possibly in accordance with sound statesmanship, to have been combined with endowment of the Catholic priesthood, were all innovations or reforms exactly in accordance with the enlightenment of the eighteenth century. In carrying out these kinds of reforms, as in their great reform of the poor-law, the Whigs were giving effect to a traditional policy handed down to them by the wisest and best of their predecessors. But it was a policy of the past. Some portions of it had already become impossible through changes in public opinion. To Lord Melbourne, who shared the religious scepticism, or to Lord John Russell, who had imbibed the rational piety, of a past age, the endowment of the Roman Catholic priesthood might appear both a matter of reasonableness and of justice; but the religious movement, which was still evangelical, though just on the point of beginning its transformation into High Church ecclesiasticism, made impossible even the proposing of schemes which the days of Burke might, without opposition, have embodied in acts of Parliament.

Of the commercial reforms more or less surreptitiously favored by Peel, and soon openly to be claimed by the whole Manchester school, of the benevolent State interference patronized by Lord Shaftesbury, the Whigs knew nothing. With the religious sentiment of the day they had little sympathy; with the beliefs or emotions which gave strength to the High-Church movement in England, or to the Free-Church movement in Scotland, they had no sympathy whatever. They, no doubt, like all friends of good government in England, wished to support the efforts of foreign constitutionalists. Lord Russell, in his old age, could boast with truth that he had always been the friend of Italy; but it was Palmerston, and not the genuine Whigs, who tried to give moral and occasionally material support to the cause of popular freedom on the Continent; and the constitutionalism of the Whigs, even as represented by Palmerston, was somewhat out of date. They were zealous for good government, they believed in the possibility of extending throughout Europe the blessings of English constitutional freedom, and thought bona fide that any people might be happy who enjoyed a government of which the forms imitated or parodied the Constitution of England. They hardly understood the influence of nationality, and were utterly opposed to every movement which partook, or seemed to partake, of socialism.

The best of the Whigs were good men and just men, but they were men of the past, they were not in any sense men of their time. To assert this is not to assert that the Whig view of life or politics was erroneous. In many respects the rational enlightenment of the eighteenth century will, it may be suspected, prove to have been wiser than the faith, enthusiasm, or sentimentality of the nineteenth. A leader may fail to be the man of his age not only because he has not perceived new truths, but also because he clings with tenacity to established dogmas, which seem to be truisms or platitudes only because a particular generation have ceased to practise maxims which it is impossible to confute. What is certain is, that leaders who are not men of their age will soon cease to lead. The Whigs were in one point of view the Conservatives of their time: they believed in the aristocratic ideal (and a very high ideal it is) of freedom, of justice, and of good government. But they came into office at the very time when Whig ideals were ceasing to influence the world. In their case not for the first (and we may safely assume not for the last) time in English history, a great party has achieved a nominal triumph at the very moment which, owing to the changed spirit of the age, preceded the party's real fall. X.

A POETESS OF THE WEIMAR SCHOOL.

BERLIN, December 19, 1889.

To those who wander in the by-paths of German literature, the name of Amalie von Imhoff is well known; contemporaries make frequent mention of the "celebrated authoress of the 'Sisters of Lesbos,'" and Goethe students are familiar with the figure of a beautiful and gifted girl who charmed the court and private circles of Weimar in the golden days. Her poetical works, at best but a feeble reflection of the literary splendor of her time, have long since faded from the memory of the reading public, and of her life after leaving Weimar little was heretofore known. But it is precisely the experiences of her life that commend Amalie von Imhoff to our appreciative attention to-day. Amalie's letters and journals, etc., with connective text, have been edited by her niece, the Baroness von Bissing. It is an excellent biography and delightful reading.

Amalie was the niece of Frau von Stein. Her father had been in the English service in India; divorced from his first wife, who subsequently married Warren Hastings, her husband's former friend, Imhoff returned to Germany. In Weimar he married the younger sister of Frau von Stein, Fräulein von Schardt. This was Amalie's mother. A portrait of her by Goethe is still extant. Amalie was born in Weimar in 1776, and was named after the mother of Carl August. Goethe had come the year before, and Amalie's childhood thus fell in the "ten years" of gayety, squandered talent, and discontent prior to the Italian journey.

As a young girl Amalie stood under the direct personal influence of Goethe and Schiller. In Herder she found a fatherly friend; Jacobi was her instructor in Greek. Amalie had a talent for painting, too, and Heinrich Meyer, Goethe's valued counsellor in matters of art, watched over its development, and, as he watched, fell hopelessly in love. Amalie exercised a strong personal charm, to which some private journals of that time bear witness. Goethe and Schiller speak of her with real affection. She was eighteen years of age when Schiller was first attracted to her talent for verse, and both he and Goethe soon came to regard her as their special charge. "Continue to cherish our Agnes* and Amalie," writes Goethe to Schiller; "one does not appreciate what a treasure such natures are till one comes to look about the wide world for similar ones. You, my friend, have the faculty of making your influence tell as teacher which I have not. These two pupils of ours are certain one day to do much good work." In the Goethe-Schiller correspondence are frequent allusions to "our poetesses, our pupils, and friends." One of Schiller's letters contains a striking criticism; Goethe's considerate tact omitted it in the edition of the correspondence which he published in 1828–'29, when Amalie was still alive. "Amalie Imhoff," writes Schiller, "has been led to poetry, not by the heart, but only by the imagination, and will lightly trifle with it her life long. But since, to my mind, the truly æsthetic consists in a union of seriousness and lightness, whereby the seriousness lies in the contents and the lightness in the form, Amalie will always fall short of the highest by lack of 'contents.'"

Schiller was an excellent critic, and these words characterize with great precision the quality of Amalie's poetic work. Under Schiller's direction, however, Amalie began her first ambitious poem, the "Sisters of Lesbos." Schiller disapproved of the choice of subject: "It is strange," he writes to Goethe, "that these good souls cannot comprehend of how much importance it is whether a subject allow of poetic treatment or not." But the poem gave him great pleasure after all: "It is developed with tenderness, clearness, simplicity, and uncommon grace. When you come we'll talk it over together." And Goethe came and read and severely criticised the poem. He felt inclined to abandon the patronage of all dilettante versemakers whatsoever, as so much labor lost. Schiller persuaded him to be patient; he must regard the help given to striving young talent as a "sectionem cadaveris" for the application of theoretic principles. With an air of good-natured impatience, Goethe began to suggest, correct, and improve. Finding Amalie by no means discouraged by the severity of his strictures, but cheerfully ready to follow his advice, Goethe took heart. A few questions revealed, to his amused surprise, that Amalie had no knowledge of the structure of the hexameter in which she had written her poem. "I see," he said, "the child makes her verses as the rosebush bears roses." In Goethe's diary stands the entry: "I took an interest in the 'Sisters of Lesbos' and gave advice. I was attracted to the authoress as an extremely beautiful child and in after times as a woman of rare talent." Of those hours with Goethe, Amalie herself writes: "They contained for me so rich a treasure of instruction, and were in all their associations and accompaniments so inspiring, so poetic, that these moments alone outweigh a whole lifetime of ordinary experience."

'The Sisters of Lesbos' appeared in 1799, and soon reached a third edition; upon this poem rested Amalie's literary fame. The reader of to-day will be unable to understand its former popularity. It is wholly lacking in fervor, something too, in interest; the characters are of eighteenth-century sensibility, represented under social and ethical conditions which render such characters and such psychological problems incongruous. A subject requiring dramatic lapidary treatment has been delicately executed in wax. "The execution remains far behind what it should be," was Goethe's last word.

Amalie was maid of honor at the court.

* Caroline von Wolzogen, Schiller's sister-in-law, author of the novel 'Agnes von Lilien.'

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The full life of Weimar at the height of its glory was hers to enjoy and appropriate to her needs. A new century had dawned, the exhilaration of great expectations was in the air. It was the last glow of the light before it went out. That Herder had but a few months to live and that Schiller was so soon to follow, that the gloom of the battle of Jena was about to darken all the land, lay concealed behind the kindly curtains of the future. There was brilliant gayety at the court and boundless enthusiasm at the theatre, and conversations took place of whose every word that chance or good will has preserved to us, we are justly jealous. In the winter of 1803 came Mme. de Staël, and all that Weimar harbored of genius and learning gathered about her. Amalie enjoyed her special favor, and a letter of Amalie's contains an interesting passage:

"Goethe was quite as eager," she writes, "to make the acquaintance of Mme. de Staël as she was to make his. After the meeting, Goethe reported to his friends: 'It was an interesting hour. I found no opportunity to speak: she talks well, but much—very much!' The ladies, in the meantime, were eager to learn what impression our Apollo had made upon the stranger, and Mme. de Staël likewise confessed that she had found no opportunity to speak. 'But,' she is said to have sighed, 'when a man talks so well, one is content to listen.' Who spoke? Who was silent?"

We are reminded of Mme. de Staël's remark concerning Coleridge, that though great in monologue, he had no notion of dialogue.

In the meantime, a traveller of more importance in Amalie's life had visited Weimar, and had gone away with a tacit understanding that Amalie should become his wife. This stranger was Carl Helvig, who, in the service of Gustav IV. of Sweden, had visited Weimar in the winter of 1802. The career of this self-made man is remarkable. Helvig was born in Schleswig-Holstein. His parents were unable to give him even a common-school education, but unwearying diligence made him an accomplished linguist, fitted for important foreign missions; unceasing study, regardless of health, made him a successful engineer; ambition and indomitable energy, combined with true nobility of character, raised him from a position in the army little better than that of a day laborer to the side of his sovereign and the highest rank attainable in the career he had chosen. For Greek, too, he had found time, and his embassy to Constantinople had led him to the site of ancient Troy; his Homeric studies found favor with Herder and with Voss. Chance had brought Helvig into Napoleon's presence in 1796, and he was present at the battle of Rivoli. Napoleon was lacking in frankness and straightforwardness, remarks Helvig, and even at that time could not have spoken in a tone more absolute had he already been Emperor. Helvig's efforts had been directed especially to the reform of the clumsy artillery system. The public trial resulted in his favor; his reforms were adopted. Helvig himself was ennobled and received the highest commission in the gift of the King—he was made Master-General of the Ordnance.

At the time of his engagement to Amalie, however, his success was still doubtful, and his presence in Sweden necessary. The care of an invalid mother kept Amalie in Weimar. This year of separation has given us the most interesting chapter in the book before me. It is the correspondence in which Helvig unassumingly relates the story of his life. The moral qualities that made such a career possible commanded Amalie's respect. Here was a man who could demand much of others, because he made the highest demands upon himself. Amalie's diary reveals even a certain enthusiasm of admiration, but Schiller's criticism recurs to us here—it is her imagination that is kindled, and she does not feel that triumphant love which silences all apprehensions. She has a dim presentiment that they are not related natures, the energetic man of action and the contemplative, poetic soul. While he is casting cannon, she is coining fancy into verse. But, with a characteristic act of will, Halvig resolves to make her happy despite every discrepancy of birth, education, and taste. In the spring of 1803 they were married, and Amalie entered upon a new era of her life.

The beginning of the new era was marked by a violent severing of the old ties. Amalie's mother and only brother died; Herder, too, and her old friend Schiller, who lived to stand godfather to her first child, died soon after. In 1804 Amalie entered a wholly different intellectual atmosphere with the new duties of wife and mother. The simple greatness of Weimar life was exchanged in the Swedish capital for a feeble imitation of Parisian forms. "The higher culture of women," she says, "is still contraband in Stockholm." Through all her letters runs a vein of discontent, evident only in the tone of one who, in the fulfilment of a clearly recognized duty, is obliged to leave unsatisfied the aspirations of a higher nature. Her health suffered, her family increased; for her own and her children's sake, a visit to her native land was planned. She spent a winter in Heidelberg. Here she found herself once more in her proper element of literature and art. Here lived Voss of Homeric fame, the author of 'Luise.' The Boisserées, too, in the midst of their great work for old Dutch and German art, were there with the beginnings of their epoch-making collections. It seemed that a new life had opened for Amalie here, but misfortunes came.

Her husband's career, hitherto a series of triumphs over all obstacles, was suddenly checked. Gustav IV. had been dethroned by a military revolution in 1809, the King was arrested in his palace by night and carried into banishment. His first question was of his favorite, "Is Helvig among the revolutionists?" and with melancholy satisfaction he received the assurance that Helvig was ignorant of the undertaking. A different spirit began to prevail in Sweden. Bernadotte took charge of the military affairs, and Helvig was suspected of disaffection towards the new King Charles XIII. His enemies, whom Gustav IV. had dismissed, returned to positions of influence. When war broke out, Helvig was not called into service. This was a severe blow to his ambition; he sought dismissal and withdrew to Berlin to await it; his request was disregarded, and he could not enter foreign service. He had neglected his private affairs and had not husbanded his means. His wife was obliged for a time in Heidelberg to earn money with her pen. Her correspondence with authors and publishers, however, offended her husband. His reverses had told upon his health and disposition. He felt himself shut out from his wife's innermost interests, and his irritation found harsh expression. These were days of trial for Amalie darker than her prophecy had foretold, but she displayed a heroism of resolution that put Helvig to shame. Months of uncomplaining labor and alone she devoted to the regulation of his affairs in Stockholm. Helvig remained in Berlin, and, having at last secured his dismissal from Sweden, received title and rank from Frederick William III., but nothing was given him to do. To this ineffectual close his career of brilliant promise had now come. Condemned to inactivity and impatiently burning for action, he passed down into old age, broken in spirit and embittered. Common sorrow bound him still more closely to his wife. With their eldest child, now their only one, the stricken parents took up their residence in Berlin.

In poetry Amalie had found her chief comfort. In Heidelberg she had published a number of poems, Voss assisting her with some Greek idyls. There appeared also, in dramatic form, 'The Sisters in Corcyra,' a strange production of cold fancy. Amalie's Norse studies bore fruit in the legend of the 'Wolfsbrunnen,' and in the collection of 'Sagen und Legenden,' to which Fouqué gave his blessing and the young Cornelius eight illustrations. But it was in Berlin that her most important work was begun—the translation of 'Frithiof's Saga.' In Sweden Amalie had enjoyed the friendship of Tegnér. The poet was still engaged on this poem when Amalie began the translation. He sent her canto by canto as they were finished. In 1824 appeared her translation of the first five cantos with a dedicatory poem to Goethe. Her translation has a freshness of feeling and perfection of form that entitle it to the praise which it received in 'Kunst und Alterthum' of that year. This work of Amalie's lay in the direction of Goethe's ideal of a *Weltliteratur*—it was another shuttle in the loom where national literatures were being woven into a universal. With Goethe's favorable review the work had received the highest sanction; in literary Germany Goethe's sovereignty was absolute. "This recognition is perhaps a matter of little moment to you," writes Amalie to Tegnér, "but if you are not indifferent to the spread of your fame as poet over all Germany, then I may tell you that through this testimony of Goethe your renown with us is assured, for we regard Goethe's judgment as most competent." And Tegnér, otherwise so little susceptible to eulogy, was flattered by Goethe's warmth of praise. It is to be regretted that Amalie did not devote her talents more exclusively to translation, for which they especially fitted her. I refer to Schiller's criticism once again: the poet furnished the "contents," and Amalie's imagination grasped and reconstructed the original in the correct and graceful forms of which her native gifts, a long practice, and the advantages of her early Weimar training, had made her master.

Of her original poems I have avoided saying much. The interest that Amalie von Imhoff awakens to-day is in the main biographical, but yet her fame rests upon the title I have ventured to give this letter, and among her poems is one series that renders her laurels secure even in this generation of changed tastes and standards. I mean twelve lyrics, unfortunately difficult to obtain at present, which in 1826 Amalie published for the relief of the widows and orphans in Greece. Bettina von Arnim set some of these poems to music. This is Amalie's best original work. Brought up in an atmosphere of enthusiasm for antiquity and of homage and gratitude towards Greece, Amalie was deeply stirred by the struggle of the enslaved Greeks for freedom, to which Lord Byron lent the nimbus of his name. Amalie's glowing sympathy found warm expression in these earnest and beautiful songs. Her heart was in the cause, and Helvig's position of cold criticism pained her. His standpoint was military; he understood the feebleness of the Grecian cause, and despised the character of the modern Greeks. Again Amalie found herself inwardly estranged from him to whom outwardly she stood nearest.

Amalie's life had been one long contrast of this sort; she had not been made happy. She

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was, indeed, a popular and beloved member of Berlin society, and in the social sense Berlin had become the intellectual centre of North Germany. Aged survivors of that time speak of the social life in Berlin with ever young enthusiasm; Varnhagen, Schleiermacher, Fouqué, Gneisenau—above all Achim and Bettina von Arnim—these were Amalie's friends, and the "old charm of our own home made itself felt," writes poor Helvig, whose occupation was gone. But from the time Amalie had left her girlhood's home, she had never found the sympathy which her nature dumbly sought, dimly discerned at times, but lost again. Bettina was, during these years, her nearest friend, and the link that bound her spiritually still to Weimar, upon which they both looked back as upon a paradise lost. Weimar was the bright ground-texture of Amalie's life, upon which later experiences were embroidered in darker colors and the sorrowful shapes of military revolutions, losses, material reverses, and spiritual loneliness. There is something tragic in this eternal contrast of two such natures as Helvig's and Amalie's. His ambition lay in the field, where he might display his energy. Her life effort had been to make herself "an immortal part of the great whole." These are her own words. Among her papers were found the lines:

"Schreibt wenn mich Grabesruh umschlossen
Im Stein der meinen Hügel schmückt:
Sie hat geliebt, doch nie genossen,
Sie ward geliebt, doch nie beglückt."

Amalie von Imhoff died in December, 1831. Her master had not yet finished 'Faust.'

C. H. G.

Correspondence.

THE LOST WASHINGTON WILLS: THEIR POSSIBLE RECOVERY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Noticing that the will of John Washington is now missing, I would call attention to the fact that George Washington, in his letter to Sir Isaac Heard (Sparks's 'Writings,' i., 547), says: "Lawrence Washington, from whose will you enclosed an abstract, was my grandfather. The other abstracts which you sent do not, I believe, relate to the family of Washington in Virginia; but of this I cannot speak positively." He also says: "Lawrence died in 1697, and was interred in the family vault at Bridge's Creek." The inference is strong that as Lawrence seems to have died in Virginia, his will was probably recorded in England on account of property held there. The date, about 1697, of such will, is probably later than investigators have hitherto had in mind. I suggest that search be now made in the will offices of England for a document of that date, and it may be well to see if any copy can be found in Sir Isaac Heard's collections at Heralds' College or elsewhere.

In connection with this matter, the Washington pedigree, Mr. Frederick D. Stone, the Librarian of the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, has called my attention to the following footnote on p. 31, vol. i., of Lodge's recently published Life of Washington; it is as follows:

"The well-known account of the Baconian troubles, written by Mrs. Ann Cotton in 1676 (Force's Hist. Tracts, i.), is addressed 'to Mr. C. H., at Yardly, in Northamptonshire,' probably Yardly-Hastings, about eight miles from Northampton, and consequently very near Sulgrave Manor. At the beginning (p. 1) the writer refers to the commander of the Virginians in the first campaign against the Indians as 'one Colonel Washington, him whom you have sometimes seen at your house.' This suggests very strongly that John Washington, the first Virginian of the name, was of Northamptonshire, and that he came from or lived in the neighborhood of Sulgrave Manor, and that he belonged to that family."

Here we have contemporaneous evidence connecting George Washington's great-grandfather with Sulgrave, or at least its immediate vicinity, which, of course, strengthens Mr. Waters's pedigree.

In this pedigree he states the mother of the said John Washington to have been a Roades. It may be worth while mentioning that the records in London of the families of this name throughout England were examined and collected by Col. Chester in the year 1867, as he then informed me by letter. This collection must still be among his papers; if searched, it might throw some light on the Washington ancestry, at least in its connection with the family of Roades. I will add that Col. Chester likewise informed me that, in his opinion, the "Col. Washington" who is mentioned as having served in Ireland in the seventeenth century, was the same person as Henry Washington of Worcester fame. It may be so, and yet there were more Washingtons than one in Ireland, I think, just as is the case with the Netherlands and the West Indies.

C.

Care of The Historical Society of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

BONDAGE TO PARTY NAMES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your comment on the communication from "W: M. G." in No. 1279 sufficiently exhausts the subject, but perhaps a few words more in detail may be useful. The trouble with many who think with your Cambridge correspondent is, that they do not throw off their prejudice against the name Democratic. This prejudice is a natural one, but as a mere prejudice it is out of place here.

By Mr. Cleveland's courageous message of December, 1888, our political parties, after existing many years for the spoils alone, were again given a real principle upon which to divide. In national politics this difference ought to give to every citizen a good reason for voting with that party which stands for what he believes to be the right of that great question. Here the policy of each party is clearly defined and unmistakable. No mere sentiment in favor of one party because of its good deeds, or against the other because of its bad record, ought to govern his action. Neither party is now controlled by those who made the glorious history of the one or the mistakes of the other, nor do the intelligent masses of the Republican party or the "Residuum" of the Democratic party shape the policy of either.

It is true, as your correspondent says, that whatever is good in our political future must come from such men as made the Whig party and now make the Republican party; it is because they are such men that the Republican party is losing their support, perhaps will perish, its great work finished, unless, by such bait as the appointment of Pat Egan, enough of the "Residuum" to give it new life can be induced to take their places.

Why should any increase in the power of the Democratic party be deprecated if that party will carry out a policy which shall benefit the whole country? All good citizens might rejoice if the Democratic party, returning to power presently, should abolish those war taxes which, during the life of a generation, have stood in violation of the pledges under which they were enacted.

When a citizen of Cambridge sees the Democratic party of his town increased by hundreds of men in intelligence and patriotism like Charles W. Eliot or T. W. Higginson, he need have no fear that such increase is a misfortune to his town; nor is the political atmosphere of that town bad, even though it elect a Democratic Mayor. It is the mere name which is the bugaboo, and yet that name, which meant one thing yesterday, means quite another thing to-day. Once it stood for the extension of slavery; again, it meant sympathy with rebellion, then fiat money; but now it means tariff reform. Some people believe it means also civil-service reform and other good things, but of these there may be doubts. That it means tariff reform, however, there can be no doubt, and that the Republican party is in the hands of those who will oppose to the end any reform of the tariff is equally certain. As parties are but means to an end, if your correspondent favors free wool, iron, and coal for Massachusetts, he need not lament any increase in Democratic strength.

C. B. W.

Cincinnati, January 9, 1890

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you permit me to add to what was written by your correspondent "W: M. G." in the *Nation* for January 2 on "Parties and Young Voters" the following?

(1.) It so happened, some years since, that the writer, together with some others, conducted a canvass of this county, with the suppression of the grog-shop as the issue. In doing so he found one township which cast 280 votes at the election that year, with a Democratic majority of 162. There was but one small village, of about 150 inhabitants, in the township; but there were seven grog-shops and not a single organized church or religious society. There were two church buildings, one frame and one brick, but each without doors, windows, or floors.

The next day we went into another township of the same soil, timber, and natural advantages every way, and found that it cast 289 votes, which were very nearly equally divided; and, singularly enough, there were seven organized and active churches and not a grog-shop.

(2.) I went into a business-room in the south part of this city a few days since, and the owner said to me he bought there because he found he could do so at a much lower rate than in the north or east part of the city. The south is the Democratic portion of the city and as attractive naturally as any other part.

(3.) Some years since a prominent Democrat in one of our principal cities called upon the principal of the High School to consult him about sending his son to college. Upon the son's return after his first year's study, the father called upon the principal, and the following colloquy took place:

"If I had known that college I sent my boy to was such a hot-bed of radicalism, I would not have sent him there."

"Well, where would you have sent him?"

"Oh! I would have sent him somewhere else. The colleges are not all as bad as that one."

"You would not have sent him South, would you?"

"No; there is no school there I would send him to. But there must be some of the colleges that are not such hot-beds of radical notions as that one."

"Well, I don't know about that. I am pretty well acquainted with the colleges and the professors North and West, and my information is that fully 90 per cent. of the professors and 75 per cent. of the students are Republicans."

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"Well, Mr. ———, I'll tell you. Whenever I meet a teacher or a preacher who is a Democrat, I confess I am always afraid of him."

(4.) The Minneapolis *Times*, an independent newspaper, says, in relation to Iowa politics, that "it must be conceded Republicanism represents the highest intelligence and best character of the State." Is not that true of every State in the Union, except possibly the old slave States?

(5.) Bryce (in his 'American Commonwealth,' vol. ii., p. 2) says:

"During the war it [the Republican party] drew to itself nearly all the earnestness, patriotism, religious and moral fervor which the North and West contained. It is still, in those regions, the party in whose ranks respectable, steady, pious, well-conducted men are to be looked for. If you find yourself dining with one of the best people in any New England city, or in Philadelphia, or in Cincinnati, Cleveland, Chicago, or Minneapolis, you assume that the guest sitting next you is a Republican almost as confidently as in English county society you would assume your neighbor to be a Tory; that is to say, you may be wrong, but in four cases out of five you would be right."

It may be true that the trend of young men is towards the Democratic party, but it is not so among my acquaintances. I can give the names of three Democratic fathers whose sons came home from school Republicans.

J. J. J.

Columbus, O., January 15, 1890.

CABINET OR COMMITTEE?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If I ask leave to comment upon Mr. Hudson's letter, it is for the sake of promoting discussion on a subject which ought to be, if it is not, of general interest. In the first place, Mr. Hudson misquotes Mr. Bryce. After a careful reëxamination of his book, I affirm, and challenge contradiction, that Mr. Bryce nowhere says, of himself, that the admission of the Cabinet officers to Congress would be "an inadequate remedy." What he does in this direction is simply to quote (as in chap. xv., p. 150, of the English two-volume edition) the opinions of Americans as given to him. On the other hand, the first half of the first volume is almost a continuous disquisition upon the advantages of the English system of having the Ministry in Parliament, and the disastrous consequences of the want of that system here. He does not even say, like his countryman Mr. Bagehot, that it is an excellent thing, which the Americans have not and cannot have. On p. 82 he refers to the Senate report of February 4, 1881, providing for the admission of the Cabinet to seats in both houses, with the necessary changes of the rules, and merely adds, "Nothing has so far been done to carry out this report." And this view is confirmed by a remark on p. 279:

"These observations may suffice to show why the fathers of the Constitution did not adopt the English Parliamentary or Cabinet system. They could not adopt it because they did not know of its existence. They did not know of it because it was still immature, because Englishmen themselves had not understood it, because the recognized authorities did not mention it. As the idea never presented itself, we cannot say that it was rejected, nor cite the course they took as an expression of their judgment against the system under which England and her colonies have so far prospered."

He does not even say, as Mr. Hudson puts it, that the measure might have results other than those "desired." The remark referred to is on p. 284: "I have no space to discuss the merits of this proposal, but must observe that it might lead to changes more extensive than its advocates seem to contemplate." Well, suppose it does. If the Cabinet ever have seats in Congress, it will be because the houses vote them in. If the result is not satisfactory to the country, which would have more to say about the matter than it has about anything now, it would be perfectly easy to vote them out again. The experiment is the simplest thing in the world.

So much for Mr. Bryce. What is the alternative proposed by Mr. Hudson? "A single Governing Committee, chosen from the members of the majority, having the sole power of originating revenue and appropriation bills, and given the control and direction of important measures."

In what would this committee differ in principle (though it might be a degree simpler) from those existing now? It would be composed wholly of local representatives having no national authority. Its members must either be appointed by the Speaker or elected by the members, and in either case be bound hand and foot to party and local interests. It might, and therefore would, conduct its real deliberations in secret. It would be in no way responsible for executive administration. As it happens, we are not left to conjecture. The French Budget Committee is the chief of its kind, and has control of all the finances, both as to revenue and expenditure, but it cannot get its budgets closed from year to year, it cannot control expenditure or regulate taxation; and so the finances, with a large annual deficit, are rushing on towards bankruptcy.

Mr. Hudson proposes that the contact with the Executive should be by sessions of the Governing Committee with the President and Cabinet. Could there be a more pitiable spectacle? It is bad enough that single members of the Cabinet should be obliged, in order to carry any measure of public interest, to lobby and intrigue with the committees, like any private speculator. But here would be the President and his Cabinet, the representatives collectively of the whole nation, in the position of suppliants and intriguers before an all-powerful committee, whose interests would be entirely local, who would be bound first of all to satisfy the claims of the private interests which had placed them in power, and who would officially care nothing whatever for the national interest. Suppose that the Governing Committee (made up, observe, from the majority of the House) should be of the opposite party from the President. Pleasant sessions those would be!

Mr. Hudson's main reason for substituting a Governing Committee for the Cabinet seems to be that the former could resign when defeated, while the Cabinet could not. Why need we imitate so slavishly the English methods? An English Ministry must resign at the bidding of Parliament because it must obey its creator and master. Congress, thanks to the framers of the Constitution, is neither the creator nor the master of our Executive. Why need the Cabinet resign in the face of an adverse majority any more than now? They could modify or postpone burning questions, and leave the people to decide at the next elections. In the face of those elections, Congress would be very wary of factious opposition to the Executive. Fancy that body, from party motives, refusing troops and money to Lincoln's Cabinet during the war!

What is needed is that which Mr. Bryce insists upon, public contact between the Legislature and the Executive. The Senate report above referred to, which deserves, and is perhaps destined to obtain, immortality, says that the advantages of the change proposed are so obvious as not to need discussion, which means that they were not prepared to take the burden of discussing it. There is one great objection, greater than the difficulty about resignation, greater than the fear of other extensive changes—so great that it makes one almost despair of seeing it brought about—and that is that the *lobby* does not want it, and this Government to-day is a government of the lobby.

G. B.

Boston, January 18, 1890.

THE FISHERIES QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think you are somewhat in error as to the facts stated by you in a short article upon the Canadian Fishery Question, in the *Nation* of January 9. Bait and ice were largely purchased by American fishermen all along the coasts of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia during the fishing season until the Canadian Act prohibiting the sale was passed. Bait is also largely procured in Newfoundland, but the trade in bait, ice, and other supplies was a lucrative one in the maritime provinces of the Dominion, and some of our Opposition newspapers contend that the inhibition of this trade by the Dominion authorities was unneighborly and also impolitic. Fishing within a marine league of the shore of Canada has, of course, always been prohibited, when not otherwise regulated by treaty; but allowing American fishermen to purchase bait and supplies from Canadians does not necessarily give the former the right to take fish in Canadian waters.

As we understand the question here, the American fishermen wrongly claim that under the Treaty of 1818 they are entitled to purchase bait, etc., in our ports, in the same way that one of our vessels can now go to an American port and purchase the like, or any other article of commerce, there. We have the right to prohibit your fishermen from purchasing these supplies in our territory, but the whole question could and should be disposed of by a common-sense arrangement between the two countries, whereby their productions could be exchanged without restriction, fiscal or otherwise. Each country has something to sell which the other wants and is willing to buy, and if the politicians who purposely, it seems, muddle the question, would stand aside, the business men of the two countries could speedily settle the matter.

I entirely agree with you in your opinion as to Mr. Babson's conduct, but he, I presume, is endeavoring to make himself "solid" with the Gloucester fishing people, many of whom, by the way, are Nova Scotians born and bred, and British citizens to this day. On our side the good Tories make themselves "solid" with their constituents by expressing their anxiety to die in the defence of Canadian liberty. Do you think your Mr. Babson could be induced to meet our Gen. Laurie of Nova Scotia, not at San Francisco, but on some nearer neutral ground, where the whole question could be decided in the lists? We can get along without the General if you can spare Mr. Babson.

W. B. C.

New Brunswick, January 14, 1890.

DÉGRAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in No. 1280 of the *Nation*, under "The Week," in which you mention the raising of the tariff on dégras by a Chicago appraiser, and refer to the nature of dégras itself, contains a slight technical error to which I beg to call your attention.

Dégras is a grease obtained as a by-product in the process of oil tanning of skins and hides. In this method of tanning, fish or train-oil is

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used, and also the grease obtained in cleaning and preparing wool for spinning. Oil-tanned leather, after going through the process and the manipulations of tanning, takes up more grease than it can hold and is necessary for tanning. The excess of grease is removed by pressing and washing, and the grease so obtained is called dégras.

In the process of oil tanning, the fatty matter used undergoes certain chemical alterations which make it peculiarly adapted for dressing regularly tanned leather; and the demand for dégras for the latter purpose is greater than can be supplied from the by-product of oil tanning. Dégras is therefore regularly manufactured by subjecting the same skins over and over to the oil-tanning process simply with the object of obtaining dégras.

I do not know whether this will help the Chicago amender of the tariff any in his view that dégras is an expressed oil in the sense of the law. Yours very truly,

A. V. WEISE.

SARCOXIE, Mo., January 14, 1890.

MILLIONAIRES AND SINNERS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your recent article on "Millionaires" reminds me that a young minister, not long since, supplied a pulpit for one Sabbath in a thriving manufacturing town east of the Hudson. He was the guest of a deacon, and as they walked together after the morning service the deacon said, "Perhaps you do not know that you preached to Eighteen Millions of dollars today?" "No," said the minister, "I did not; but you will go to h—ll all the same unless you repent."

Would you call him "an angel unawares"?

Very truly, S. N.

PHILADELPHIA, January 13, 1890.

MASONIC RITUAL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent deplorable accident at Huntington prompts me to put a question which I dare say is in the minds of many:

Is it not high time that the great and beneficent order of Masons had raised itself to a higher intellectual plane, and purged its ritual of fables of the Kabbala, properties of the pantomime, and terrors of the nursery?

I am, sir, etc., WM. HAND BROWNE.

AVITUS AND MILTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If my article on "A Precursor of Milton," in the January *Atlantic*, fails to make it certain that Milton knew Avitus, the fault is in my translation of the passages quoted. They should have been (and in the first instance were) given in the original, parallel with the corresponding passages from 'Paradise Lost,' but the exigencies of magazine-printing forbade that form. No English translation can convey the resemblance between the Latin poet and Milton; it comes out curiously in the Italian version of 'Paradise Lost' by Guido Sorelli. But only a careful comparison of the two poems can give the argument full force, and whoever is interested in it will go to them and accept nobody's dictum.

I must dispute the expression used in the last number of the *Nation*, which implies that Avitus was a "much more obscure person" than Milton. Every student of early European history under our era, especially of ecclesiastical history, knows better than that. It is only as a writer that the great statesman-bishop's fame has been lost.—Yours respectfully,

S. B. W.

JANUARY 13, 1890.

'FUGITIVE FACTS.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the review of 'Fugitive Facts' appearing in your issue of this week, there are statements and implications not of *opinion*, but of *facts*, which are totally incorrect, and can have no other foundation than the hasty surmise of your reviewer.

The volume is *not* in any sense a mere collection of "clippings." The variety and scope of the titles are due, in large part, to the scrap-book method, but there is not a single article of any length in the book, except such as are mere enumerations of numbers or names, which is taken directly from any source whatever. The Greenbush *News* may have furnished a suggestion for a title, but the information given on that subject is the best that our great libraries render available. The articles are, almost without exception, original composition, and are designed to give, in clear, concise form, the pith of the matter obtained from many sources. Hence, any "credit" is impracticable beyond the general statement in my preface, that "all statements are supported by the best authorities."

I feel much aggrieved by the impression conveyed by your notice, as many single articles represent days of diligent search and reading in the library, and the effort to catch and present to the readers the *gist* of diffuse and exhaustive articles found in other works. That suggestive "scrap" from the Greenbush *News* entailed much labor in the ascertaining of reliable information on that subject.

I beg that you will correct the mistaken impression conveyed by your notice by publishing this letter, or in such other way as you prefer.—Very truly, ROBERT THORNE.

37 GRAMERCY PARK, N. Y., January 11, 1890.

[In view of the limitations of individual knowledge, we *did* assume that Mr. Thorne could not have written at first hand, or have personally verified, statements on so multifarious themes as his book contains. The manner of compilation which we attributed to him was inferrible from the heterogeneity of the contents. It seemed impossible that any one should deliberately have made out such a list of subjects for investigation; and that Mr. Thorne did not do this, but merely printed extracts and scrap-books made on no definite principle of selection, was further indicated by the unintelligent way in which the articles were arranged. We did not undertake to test the truth of his statements, but if their uniform accuracy were demonstrated, our criticism would still hold good. As to giving credit, we are unable to admit the impossibility which Mr. Thorne urges, especially as this is common in similar compilations. It is customary for scholars, even the most eminent, to cite the authority for their statements. When an author fails to do this, there is no means of estimating his accuracy except by personal investigation.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have in press the second volume of Justin McCarthy's 'History of the Four Georges,' and a new edition of Quackenbos's 'Illustrated History of Ancient Literature, Oriental and Classical.'

A work on 'Civil Government,' by John Fiske, is announced by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Cassell & Co. announce that they will publish a memorial of the late Henry W. Grady, editor of the Atlanta *Constitution*. His coworkers on that journal have prepared it, and it will be edited by Joel Chandler Harris. It will contain a complete life of Mr. Grady, and representative selections from his writings and speeches.

Roberts Bros., Boston, will publish next month 'Albrecht,' an historical novel, by Arlo Bates, and George Sand's 'The Bagpipers,' translated by Miss Wormeley.

Mr. W. W. Pasko, 19 Park Place, invites subscriptions to a 'History of Printing in the City of New York, from its Beginning to the Present Time,' with illustrative, historical and biographical notes. It will make two quarto volumes with numerous cuts, maps, etc. Five hundred copies only will be printed.

Mr. J. M. Place, publisher of the Harrisburg *Telegram*, has, in connection with Mr. J. J. McLaurin, undertaken the preparation of a history of the Johnstown disaster, the net proceeds of the sale of which will go to the relief of printers' orphans and aged persons who suffered by the flood.

'A Study of Ben Jonson,' by Algernon Charles Swinburne, will be brought out by Worthington Co.

Ginn & Co.'s latest list of announcements include 'A Brief History of the Roman People,' by the late Prof. Wm. F. Allen, and 'The Annals of Tacitus,' edited by the same hand; a revised and enlarged edition of Prof. Goodwin's 'Moods and Tenses of the Greek Verb'; and 'Open, Sesame' (Part I.), a collection of prose and verse for schools and homes.

F. W. Christern sends us the prospectus of the 'Obras Completas' of Lope de Vega, to be published by the Spanish Royal Academy. The rate of publication will be three or four volumes a year. The editing of the text will be scrupulous as to its purity, and critical and historical notices will accompany each piece by this prolific writer.

A wide reading of 'The Story of Emin's Rescue as Told in Stanley's Letters' can confidently be predicted. The letters, to which have been added a few from members of his staff, have been edited by Mr. J. Scott Keltie, librarian of the Royal Geographical Society, who furnishes a needed introduction touching Emin's situation which Stanley was invoked to relieve, and giving the particulars of the expedition down to the time of its arrival on the Congo. A map shows the route traversed, and there are portraits of Emin and his rescuer. The American publishers are Harper & Bros. The little volume can be quickly read, but not quickly forgotten.

The Clarendon Press has made a fine volume (the first) of a reissue of Anthony Wood's 'Survey of the Antiquities of Oxford,' edited devotedly enough by Andrew Clark, who nevertheless seems to be aware of the want of interest of this veritable sawdust heap of local antiquities. The critic (on this side of the water at least) can hardly take hold of it. This instalment deals with the city and its suburbs.

For the fourth time M. Jules Lemaitre has collected into a volume his dramatic criticisms contributed every Monday to the *Journal des Débats*, and this fourth series of his 'Impressions de Théâtre' (Paris: Lecène & Oudin; New York: F. W. Christern) does not yield in piquancy to its predecessors. Especially to be noted is his frank criticism of his own play,

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"Révoltée," acted last year at the Odéon, and his biting analysis of the late Théodore Barrière's "Filles de Marbre," recently revived in Paris for the first time in thirty years, and most unsuccessfully, though it still lingers in American theatres, where it is known as the "Marble Heart."

M. Ernest Bertin has collected from the same journal a volume of book-reviews, 'Études sur la Société Française' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern), in which he considers, in the light of recent works, Mme. de Sévigné's grandson, Racine, La Rochefoucauld, Saint-Simon, Voltaire, and other representatives of French society of the past. Perhaps the chapters of most interest to Americans, who were once asked, "Have we a Bourbon among us?" are those on Louis XVII. and on the many pretenders to his rank.

The prison statistics of the United States for 1888 form the subject of a monograph by R. P. Falkner, Ph.D., which is published by the University of Pennsylvania. The reports of prisons upon which it is based are defective and arranged upon different plans, so that the material is refractory. We observe that in the year 1886 there was among the 552 convicts in Philadelphia only one intemperate person, or the intemperate numbered only one-fifth of one per cent. During the same year one-third of the convicts at Joliet, Ill., were classed as intemperate. Data of this character can afford few valuable results, and we find nothing in this paper that calls for particular mention. It may, however, as the author suggests, serve as the basis for future studies.

The absurdity and injustice of double taxation in Massachusetts are well shown in a small pamphlet by Mr. J. P. Quincy (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). He does not consider the subject with reference to the ultimate incidence of taxes, but points out in a spirited way the inequalities in the assessments of neighboring towns, and the propriety of the migrations of the "tax-dodger." But we doubt the wisdom of invoking the aid of "all Nationalists, Christian Socialists, and Single-Tax men." Appeal might better be made to the saner portion of the community.

State Boards of Health are disseminating sanitary information so copiously that, before long, preventable disease in a community should be disgraceful as well as hurtful, and should equally reflect upon the intelligence of the people and the honesty of the officials, and warn off intending settlers. The report of the State Board of Michigan (Dr. Henry B. Baker, Secretary) for 1888, the sixteenth of the annual series, is the last we have seen. Considering the amount and character of its yearly work, conspicuously the circulation of tracts of instruction, the essentials of public hygiene must soon be common among the citizens of the peninsular State. The matters of most general interest in this report are the cumulative evidence of the spread of typhoid fever by an infected water-supply, charts showing the restraining influence of isolation and disinfection upon the spread of diphtheria and scarlet fever, and a discussion of the relation of temperature to respiratory diseases. In diphtheria, where isolation and disinfection were neglected, the proportion of both cases and deaths was about four-and-a-half times as many as where they were enforced, and in scarlet fever it was about five times as many. The estimate is made that in the two diseases combined, in 1886-7, 11,800 cases were prevented and 1,685 lives were saved in Michigan by these measures.

There is reprinted a paper read by Dr. Baker before the last International Medical Congress, showing the increase of diseases of the respiratory organs as the external temperature declines (which is generally recognized), and explaining it by supposing that the albuminous parts of the blood pass into the air passages whenever the want of moisture in the air leads the salts to be in those passages in excess. In this albuminous layer the presumed bacterial causes find a favorable seat for development. We cannot say that this satisfies all the conditions.

The Jacksonville (Fla.) Auxiliary Sanitary Association has published a report, voluminous in detail, but not in convenient form for analysis, covering its yellow-fever work in 1888. Nearly $350,000, independently of Government aid, was received as donations and used on account of the public health.

The *New England Magazine* is now among the best that come to our table. The January number is the fifth of the vigorous new series, and has half-a-dozen articles which may be read profitably and with interest even by those not to the New England manner born. Such is Mr. A. R. Willard's well-informed and freely illustrated paper on "The New England Meeting-house and the Wren Church," for have not New Yorkers also evidence of Wren's influence on their earlier church buildings? Such is Dr. Jameson's historical inquiry, "Did the Fathers Vote?" He shows that in Massachusetts at least they were chargeable, like their posterity, with indifference to the exercise of the suffrage, but to an even greater extent. We can barely mention "Boston Musical Composers," with portraits; "The Behring Sea Controversy," "Thomas Jefferson and the Louisiana Purchase," and two papers on Browning.

In the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January, Gen. Sir Lewis Pelly gives an account of what has been done by the British East Africa Company in the exploration and development of its territory. Stations have been planted in the interior. The port of Mombasa is being improved by the construction of a pier and a lighthouse. Forty miles of railroad are being laid, which is eventually intended to connect the Victoria Nyanza with the coast at this point. A road and telegraph are being built along the coast. All this has been accomplished without opposition from the natives, whose good will has been won by the tact shown by the company's officers in dealing with the various chiefs and tribes. Gen. Pelly also briefly sketches the history of the South African and Royal Niger Companies, showing what is to be expected from each. Capt. A. Hovgaard of the Danish Navy describes the movement of the ice in the Kara Sea. He believes that the navigation of this "inland" sea, for so he regards it, will become "a very simple matter," and that "sooner or later a regular trade will be established by this route with Siberia." He also advocates an attempt to reach the North Pole by this sea, the only route still left untried. At the annual meeting of the Society in November, M. Élisée Reclus and Maj. J. W. Powell were elected honorary members.

Mr. Eugene Schuyler, Consul-General of the United States in Egypt, has been unanimously elected an honorary member of the Khedivial Geographical Society at Cairo.

In his last letters to the London *Times*, Mr. Geo. Curzon, M. P., describes the political and commercial conditions of Khorasan, at whose capital, the sacred city of Meshed, both Russia and Great Britain now maintain consul-generals. He argues that Russia desires to possess this Persian province, not only because of its superior wealth "in fruit, in minerals, in produce of every kind, above all in grain," to her Transcaspian possessions, but because of its being essential to her gaining an outlet, by way of Seistan, to the Indian Ocean. As regards the feeling of the people towards Russia, he says: "My impression is that Meshed, if it is destined to fall, will fall without a blow, and that a change of ownership in Khorasan might be effected without the loss of a drop of blood." This is owing to a variety of causes, chief among which are the "utter rottenness of Persian administration," the liberation of great numbers of Persian slaves in Khiva, and the repression of the Turcoman raids. Mr. Curzon asserts that, notwithstanding all the efforts of the Russians to obtain a commercial supremacy in this province, and in spite of the fact that the "volume of trade" is "indisputably Russian, the value is still on the side of the English." The cheaper goods in the retail shops come from Russia, but the tea, indigo, drugs, medicines, and spices, as well as other articles of British manufacture, come from India. "It can be demonstrated," he says, "that Meshed at this moment does a larger trade with Bombay than it does with the whole of Russia." His last letter is descriptive of his journey from Meshed to Teheran, with some account of the latter city, in which there are now nearly five hundred Europeans.

The bibliographical periodicals for December do not offer a great variety in their contents. In the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen* the two principal articles are the bibliography of the writings of Michael Bapst, and an interesting historical sketch of Jesuit bibliography by Professor Arndt; while the fifth *Beiheft* is devoted to a third supplement to Weller's 'Deutsche Zeitungen,' by A. Heyer, and a bibliographical essay on Arabic translations from the Greek, by M. Steinschneider. In the *Library* for December worthy of note is the paper, by the Chief Librarian of the British Museum, entitled "Some Hints on the Future of Free Libraries"; interesting, too, is the paper by W. Blades on chained libraries, describing more particularly the chained library of Wimborne Minster.

The petition to the members of the French Academy on behalf of a simplified orthography is still in circulation. It was launched in May last, and M. Louis Havet came to its support in the *Revue Bleue* of November 23. The most of the changes proposed would seem to be little shocking to the native sense. The mute letters are of course attacked (as *l* in *fils*, *o* in *faon*, etc.), and the quasi-mute in doubling (as *n* in *honneur*.) But also the mute accents are to be abolished (as in *où*, *là*, *gîte*, *fût*). The French, both in writing and in printing, are so careless in this matter that here again no feelings ought to be wounded. Still, unless French printers refuse to give to foreign words such of the obnoxious accents as belong to them, we do not see the force of the argument that they can economize in *à*, *ù*, *î*, *û* in every font.

Not a few Americans genealogically curious will be glad to have their attention called to the beginning of a publication, in the *Lincolnshire Notes and Queries* for January, of a list of the gentry of Lincolnshire, carefully copied from the Herald's visitation of the County of Lincoln of 1634. It embraces the Disclaimers also, *i. e.*, people socially qualified to bear arms, but having no right to do so. These often obtained the right from the crown after the visitation, and became "visitation families."

—The American Society for Psychical Research, after existing for five years, with its headquarters in Boston, and publishing some

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600 pages of "Proceedings," at last, for pecuniary reasons, terminated its corporate existence on January 14. The English Society of the same name is heir to its documentary possessions, and is to keep Dr. Richard Hodgson, late Secretary of the American Society, as its own secretary in America. A majority of the associates of the American Society have joined the English Society, forming the nucleus of an American branch. Professors S. P. Langley of Washington, H. P. Bowditch of Boston, and W. James of Cambridge are appointed vice-presidents of the S. P. R. in America; but apart from their advisory functions there is no "organization" here, a circumstance which will doubtless contribute to economy and efficiency of work. The English Society's Proceedings keep up with wonderful vigor, and have become indispensable to students of psychology. It is to be hoped that a solid moral and pecuniary support to the Society may be extended from this country. The annual assessment of American associates is $3.00. They receive for this the published "Proceedings," which appear quarterly, and the monthly "Journal" printed for circulation in the Society only. American work will henceforward appear in these publications. Those who wish may become full "members" of the English Society, with voting and other privileges, by the annual payment of $10. Meetings of the Branch will be held periodically for the reading of papers and discussion. Those who desire to join the Society or to obtain information should address the Secretary, R. Hodgson, No. 5 Boylston Place, Boston.

—The first number of the new English Liberal weekly, the *Speaker*, bears date of January 4. It contains the usual apology for journalistic commencements, and only time can supply one department which we hope is contemplated, that of Letters to the Editor, for these are a sign at once of the vitality of the paper itself, and of an active public sentiment glad of a medium through which to make itself heard. In fact, the title of the paper seems to call for this. The *Speaker* presents a quarto form both narrower and shorter than the *Nation's*, but likewise in three columns; and the scheme is of forty-eight pages, the advertising pages being numbered continuously with the reading matter. The type chosen is large, but, being "unleaded," has too condensed an appearance to suit our taste, and, being the same in size throughout, with the exception of book-titles and poetical extracts, still further daunts the eager reader. The leading articles are both signed and unsigned. There is special foreign correspondence; a department of "First Impressions" (or brief, informal notices which do not preclude longer reviews by-and-by); and, at the close, a business article. A buff paper cover envelopes the paper. It will be interesting to observe if England can support *three* politico-literary journals of this order. Significant is the action of the *Saturday Review*, at the beginning of the present year, in introducing a department of news chronicle and comment; and of the *Spectator* in experimenting with a column of causerie on social topics and literary intelligence.

— *Le Livre* closes not ingloriously the first phase of its existence with the December number. One misses the customary full-page plate, but there is a generous supply of curious facsimiles (?) of title-pages and vignettes drawn from the works of the obscurer Romanticists, bearing such extraordinary alternative titles as 'Les Gondoles du Cœur, ou les Bercements de l'Amour,' 'La Fille d'Ophélie, ou le Fantôme d'Elseneur,' 'Les Frissons du Tombeau, ou les Résurrections,' 'Les Amours d'un Squelette,' 'Edgard le Taciturne, ou l'Étrangleur,' etc., etc. In fact, the thirty titles scrupulously recorded and the illustrations make the impression of a clever mystification—"contes pour les bibliophiles." Among the reviews we remark that of 'Sous-Offs' (*sous-officiers*), a romance of military life designed to expose the petty tyranny of the system, by Lucien Descaves, who seems to have used the darkest colors freely; and that of the third volume of Georges Bengesco's Voltaire Bibliography, which has to do with the correspondence. Altogether, this indefatigable searcher records about 10,500 notes and letters for the sixty-seven years 1711–1778, which he numbers in accord with the Moland edition. But Moland's omissions are made good not only by mention of them, but by printing the text of more than a hundred letters which have never appeared in any 'Complete Works' of Voltaire. More than this, M. Bengesco improves upon Moland by a more correct indication of the sources of the letters, the place of their first appearance in print, etc. M. Octave Uzanne, in laying aside one editorial rôle for another, presents a specimen of the new serial, successor to *Le Livre*, *Le Livre Moderne*, a dainty octavo of which the "expression typographique" and the "format" are all that can be judged in advance of publication, and these will be favorably judged.

— It is a distinct offence against good taste for one writer to attempt to continue a story which has been finished by another. A story, and still more a play, is a work of art, and it cannot be followed out to a possible end any more than a picture can have other bits of canvas tacked on to it. This offence against good taste has been committed by Mr. Walter Besant in the January number of the *English Illustrated Magazine*. If Mr. Besant thought the moral of "A Doll's House" a bad one, it was open to him to say so in plain English. He gains nothing by drawing a crude picture of the ruin into which the Helmer family has fallen twenty years after the end of the play. Moreover, he shows a fatal lack of power to grasp the meaning of the "Doll's House." Nora's leaving her family at the end is a mere incident, and not the main point of the play. So violent a measure as this would only occasionally be necessitated by the discovery on the part of a woman that she is a distinct human being, with accountabilities of her own. The discovery is the great thing, and the following it up by some action, whatever the particular circumstances may require. That it is not in foreign countries only that there is necessity for preaching this doctrine, may appear from the following sentence, taken from the circular for 1889 of one of the best girls' schools in Virginia: "A woman's province in life is to throw herself heartily into the pursuits of others rather than to have pursuits of her own."

—The only important article in this number of the *English Illustrated Magazine* is that on "Competition and Coöperation Among Women," by Mrs. Jeune and by Wm. James Walker. Mrs. Jeune points out how nearly impossible it is for combination to take place among women who are mothers and who are already working at starvation wages. The only remedies which she can suggest for the heart-rending state of things that prevails among the women in the east of London—for the worst features of which the sweating system is responsible—are (1) to induce boys and girls of seventeen and eighteen to refrain from marrying and having families, utterly regardless of their ability to provide for them; (2) to restrict immigration; (3) to educate the cleverest of the workers so that they can enter the ranks of the skilled laborers; (4) coöperation; (5) to make domestic service more attractive by restricting its hours of labor and diminishing its restraints. She points out that all these means are nearly hopeless when one considers the immense mass of the misery to be relieved. One thing, however, could be done: better dwellings could be secured if volunteer workers could be found who would devote themselves to enforcing regulations which are already in existence. It is a fact, she says, that in parts of London some of the most disgracefully kept property belongs to members of the vestries, and that the sanitary inspectors appointed to see that their hygienic conditions are satisfactory are relatives of the people to whom the dwellings belong.

— The great French Exposition of last summer included an "exposition of social science," and the eminent economist A. de Foville, in a letter on the economic situation in France in the January issue of the Harvard *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, appeals to his brethren in this country that they secure for the social subjects a similar place in our Exposition of 1892. One wonders a little what an exposition of social economy is like. At first blush a collection of books and other printed matter would seem to be about all that could "expose" the subject; but in the same issue of the Harvard *Journal* is an account of the French enterprise, by Mr. E. Cummings, which shows that the spectacular genius of that people grappled even this unpromising task with a good degree of success. Of course the solid part of the exposition of last summer consisted of the books, reports, pamphlets, figures, which showed the history and state of the various social questions. The exhibition was divided into fifteen sections, each devoted to some one subject, such as Profit-Sharing, Coöperation, Apprenticeship, Laborers' Dwellings, Trade Organizations, Mutual Aid Societies, and what not; and on all of these there seems to have been brought out, or at least collected, a great mass of interesting and valuable information. But, as Mr. Cummings puts it, "The administration wisely recognized that, for the most part, Exposition-goers are bereft of all senses but one—sight. Therefore, the abstractions of economic science, the beauties of profit-sharing, the blessings of sobriety and *prévoyance* must be rendered visible." Every endeavor was made to stimulate pictorial representations—by charts, diagrams, mottoes, photographs, votive temples, full-sized models of workmen's dwellings, and all sorts of decorative details. There was a pavilion devoted to the famous profit-sharing enterprise of the Maison Le Claire, daintily decorated by that house-painting establishment; busts of M. and Mme. Boucicault were placed in a little shrine to their philanthropic Bon Marché; a descriptive monument illustrated the growth of coöperation in England; and there was an exhibit of our Knights of Labor, in which decoration and mottoes predominated decidedly over facts.

—All this brought a danger that the exposition might degenerate into an "economic kindergarten," and Mr. Cummings hints plainly enough that it did not always prove possible to avoid some approach to the ludicrous. But the pictorial touches seem to have added immensely to the general educational value of the exposition; and this benefit was combined with the more solid results achieved for serious students. Congresses of specialists were held for each of

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the sections, in which there was thorough and valuable discussion, and, as we have already noted, the exposition brought out a quantity of new literature and new information on the social subjects. On the whole, it seems to have been a success; and if we do not dally so long with the preliminary questions of site and scale as to make adequate preparation out of the question, the French example may well be imitated when our turn comes in 1892.

—The death of Champfleury (whose real name was Jules Fleury Husson, born at Laon, September 10, 1821, died at Sèvres, December 6, 1889) removes one whose chief hold upon the interest of people of a later generation than his who are separated from the literary life of Paris by the Atlantic Ocean and various other things, lies in his having been a survivor of the small knot of "Bohemians" whose chief was Henry Mürger, and in his having been the reputed father, or rather godfather, of modern realism. His reputation in both these points is misleading. He was the friend of Mürger, and of others of his set, such as Baudelaire, Bonvin, Courbet; but he himself was but a *bourgeois* in Bohemia. He not only worked hard, but he lived without debts, and even saved money. Realism he disdained, both word and thing, and he was particularly offended at the report that it was he who invented the name. The Goncourts he assailed with amusing virulence. Thus, to quote from the *Figaro* of December 7, 1889:

"Ces cocodès de lettres qu'on appelle les Goncourt, qu'ils soient deux ou un. Ce sont des animaux à sang-froid qui ne sentent ni ne ressentent aucune émotion. . . . Descriptions à la façon d'un clerc d'huissier se piquant de style; royalistes en histoire, ce qui les empêche de voir clair; compilateurs achevés d'almanachs qui n'ont jamais passé pour ouvrir de vastes horizons intellectuels; disciples ou plutôt valets de chambre de Gavarni, pleins de mots cherchés au détriment de son crayon d'un *chic* dont on se moque déjà. . . ."

Champfleury will, however, most likely be remembered on account of his 'Souvenirs,' which are memories of the *vie de Bohême*, rather than from any other of his hundred books and pamphlets. From that book, too, it may come to be doubted whether the Bohemia of tradition ever really existed, after all; whether Mürger did not represent as essential and characteristic what was in truth no more than accidental in the life of which he wrote. One knows how much make-believe there was in the New York Bohemia; perhaps the Bohemia of Paris was just as unreal a country. M. Jules Levallois, who writes of Champfleury in the *Revue Bleue* of December 14, is distinctly of the opinion that it was.

— No very remarkable number of the extinct East India Company's military officers have distinguished themselves by their learning; and of these but a mere handful still survive. Of those that have passed away, several might be named as having earned a title to high praise for their achievements in letters; but conspicuously prominent among them all, if not, on the whole, preëminent, stood Col. Sir Henry Yule, whose death took place on the 30th of last December. Col. Yule, C.B., K.C.S.I., the youngest son of the late Maj. William Yule of the Bengal Army, was born at Inveresk in May, 1820. After graduating at the Military School at Addiscombe, he was commissioned in the Royal Bengal Engineers, and reached Calcutta in 1840. In 1862, partly owing to impaired health, he retired from the army, with the honorary rank of Colonel, and from that time spent many years in Italy. On returning to England, he was, from 1875 till a few months ago, a life-member of the India Council. Of his professional services, which were neither few nor unimportant, this is not the place to enter into details. In 1858 he made his first noteworthy effort in literature, as author of a quarto volume, 'Narrative of the Mission sent by the Governor-General of India to the Court of Ava in 1855.' As adding to the knowledge previously possessed of Burma, it is a work of substantial value, while its admirable pictorial illustrations afford evidence that its author's talent was wider than that exhibited by his letter-press. His next publication, in two volumes, dated in 1866, was 'Cathay and the Way Thither.' It consists of mediæval notices of China, accompanied by comments evincing immense research and erudition. In 1871 followed his new translation, with notes, also in two volumes, of Marco Polo's 'Book Concerning the Kingdoms of the East,' which, as 'The Book of Ser Marco Polo,' reached a second and enlarged impression in 1875. Eminent as was the reputation which Col. Yule acquired by his 'Cathay,' it was not only supported but enhanced by the varied merits of his reproduction and rehabilitation of the old Venetian traveller, who had been so long and so unjustly a subject of scoffing and derision. Renewed proof of Col. Yule's matchless ability as an Oriental geographer and ethnographer was furnished by his "Essay on the Geography of the Valley of the Oxus," incorporated in the second edition of Capt. John Wood's 'Journey to the Source of the Oxus,' which came out in 1872; and his memoir of its author, prefixed to the abridged edition of Capt. W. Gill's 'River of Golden Sand' (1883), has the value which attaches to everything that he produced.

— His scattered essays and criticisms embedded in the *Edinburgh Review* and elsewhere being passed by, we now come to the laborious compilation whimsically named 'Hobson-Jobson' (1886), of which, in conjunction with the late Mr. A. C. Burnell of the Madras Civil Service, he was the author. This, as its alternative title denotes, is "A Glossary of Anglo-Indian Colloquial Words and Phrases." One has only to consult at random this unique contribution to lexicography, in order to be satisfied that its execution would have been impossible but for the indefatigable exploration of countless obscure nooks and corners; a good share of its materials having been gleaned from forgotten books and pamphlets and from unprinted documents not easily accessible. Nor, on his last appearance as an elucidator of distant regions in bygone times, did Colonel Yule in the least deteriorate from the thoroughness of treatment and the wealth of recondite information which had characterized all his literary workmanship from the outset. We refer to his edition, in three volumes, of the 'Diary of William Hedges,' which had never before been published. This Diary, which dates about two centuries back, supplies a curious and interesting picture of Bengal at a period when Calcutta, even as a name, was still to emerge into existence. In addition to numerous honors conferred on him by foreign learned institutions, Col. Yule had been President of the Royal Asiatic Society, and also President of the Hakluyt Society. In requital of what he accomplished, his contemporaries acknowledged his deserts to the full. As to the future, such are the exhaustiveness and the critical exactness of his scholarship, and so nicely guarded are his conclusions, that his fame is firmly secured against depreciation, however sedulously the subjects with which he occupied himself may be investigated by his successors.

ARTHUR YOUNG'S TRAVELS IN FRANCE.

Travels in France by Arthur Young during the Years 1787, 1788, 1789. With an Introduction, Biographical Sketch, and Notes by M. Betham-Edwards. 16mo. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1889. (Bohn series.)

At last, after nearly a hundred years, there is a new edition of Arthur Young's 'Travels in France.' There was certainly a demand, eager if limited, for such an edition, for the old ones were much sought after and brought high prices. The book was originally published at Bury St. Edmund's in 1792, in one volume, quarto, of viii. and 566 pages. An ill-printed edition, in two volumes octavo, appeared in the following year in Dublin. In 1794 the author published a second volume at Bury St. Edmund's, and in the same year in London a second edition of the first volume, enlarged by the insertion of the journal of a short tour in Spain and somewhat altered. These two volumes, although differing in their places of publication, form one complete work. They were sent by Arthur Young to Gen. Washington, as we know by the words "From the Author" in a large, bold handwriting, apparently that of the recipient, on the fly-leaf of each volume of his copy. This edition of 1794 was the original of the last complete English edition, which forms a part of the fourth volume of Pinkerton's 'Voyages and Travels,' published in 1809. In the British Museum there are, moreover, three editions in French and one in German.

The work in its final shape, as left by the author, consists of two parts, the first of which is a diary of his journeys in France, Spain, and Italy, the second a collection of thirty essays, or chapters, on French agriculture, commerce, manufactures, and kindred subjects, with one on the Revolution. A series of notes on agriculture in Italy and in Spain is added. Miss Betham-Edwards has ruthlessly sacrificed all the second part, with the exception of the chapter on the Revolution. She has also cut out the parts of the diary which relate to the Italian and Spanish trips of the author. By these excisions she has reduced the bulk of the book by more than two-thirds. She has retained, perhaps, what is most interesting to the general reader, but has omitted much that is very valuable to the student of the period.

Arthur Young's book is precious in two ways. Its author was an intelligent, observant traveller, and a man of the world, moving in the best company at a most interesting time. As an account of French society and manners, and of the general aspect of the country, his book is comparable to those of Dr. Rigby and of Swinburne, to the 'Tableau de Paris' of Mercier, and to the memoirs of many contemporary writers. It is the part of the book which resembles all these that we get in Miss Betham-Edwards's edition. As a scientific student of agriculture, Young was eminent in his day, and his studies of the condition of France in this respect are very valuable. As a writer on the details of administration, he is worthy of attention, for he was very knowing and painstaking. As for his general views, they were those of his age. He was fully impressed with the idea that the Government makes the people what they are, instead of holding, as we are more inclined to do to-day, that the people make the Government what it is. The truth would appear to lie somewhere between these two theories. Young's opinions on these important matters recur constantly in the diary, but are more elaborately worked out

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in the second part, which Miss Betham-Edwards has omitted.

It is by singular good fortune that the 'Travels in France' has taken a prominent place in general history. A book, however excellent, on the subject of agriculture must have seemed to be destined to lie awhile on the squire's study-table, and find its way in due course from the upper shelf to the paper-mill. Most books of travel meet with a fate but little more distinguished; and such has, indeed, been the history of most of the many volumes written by Arthur Young. He travelled in England as well as in France, and published the results of his "tours" at great length; but the historian of the last century seldom pores over these. He spent something like three years in Ireland, and the account he wrote of that island is, as Miss Betham-Edwards rightly affirms, "invaluable to this day"; but it is not so constantly quoted as the book before us. Young's journeys to France, however, were made just as some of the most momentous events in modern history were approaching and taking place in that country. These events were not a little connected with the tenure and cultivation of land, and Young is, on the whole, the most competent and disinterested observer who has left an account of that cultivation.

Miss Betham-Edwards has prefixed to her edition a valuable introduction and an interesting biographical sketch. In the former she has undertaken a comparison of the state of France to-day with that which was seen by Arthur Young a hundred years ago. The progress in prosperity and happiness achieved during the century seems truly marvellous. We fear that a part of this advance is illusory. There has undoubtedly been improvement, but something must be allowed for the personality of the writers. Miss Betham-Edwards, who has been much in France, is a most kindly and genial observer. Arthur Young, on the other hand, was not over-indulgent. His book gives us the impression of its author as a self-assertive and rather combative man, interesting undoubtedly from his information and intelligence; courteous, perhaps, when on his good behavior, but not very conciliatory in his manner to strangers—the grumbling Englishman with whom all travellers on the Continent are familiar. Should we compare the France of 1789 described by Dr. Rigby with the France of our own time pictured by Lady Verney, the result would hardly be so cheering.

Arthur Young travelled a great deal on his own horse, thus seeing the various parts of France in the best possible way. He was everywhere struck with the excellence of the roads, but also with the small number of vehicles upon them, even near Paris. In the provinces this was still more remarkable. At Carcassonne, a town of fifteen thousand inhabitants, the traveller could not get any carriage at all, when the heat of the weather made riding uncomfortable. He says he believes there is in England no town of fifteen hundred people where postchaises and able horses may not be had at a moment's warning. French stables, he remarks, are covered dunghills. On the subject of the inns he is as minute as a guide-book, and much more free in his expressions of disapproval, although he likes the food better than that furnished for the same price in England.

Young's eyes are ever open to the sights of the road. In the south of France he notices many of the country girls and women without shoes or stockings, and throughout the country "women picking weeds into their aprons for their cows, another sign of poverty." "But if their feet are poorly clad, they have the *superb* consolation of walking upon magnificent causeways." Now and then we have a charming picture of rural plenty:

"The vintage itself can hardly be such a scene of activity and animation as this universal one of treading out the corn, with which all the towns and villages in Languedoc are now alive. The corn is all roughly stacked around a dry, firm spot, where great numbers of mules and horses are driven on a trot round a centre, a woman holding the reins, and another, or a girl or two, with whips drive; the men supply and clear the floor; other parties are dressing, by throwing the corn into the air for the wind to blow away the chaff. Every soul is employed, and with such an air of cheerfulness that the people seem as well pleased with their labors as the farmer himself with his great heaps of wheat. The scene is uncommonly animated and joyous. I stopped and alighted often to see their method: I was always very civilly treated, and my wishes for a good price for the farmer, and not too good a one for the poor, well received."

But the other side of the rural picture is more prominent. Young boils with indignation at the sight of waste lands in places where the proximity of markets would have made the soil worth cultivating:

"Thus it is," he cries, "whenever you stumble on a Grand Seigneur, even one that is worth millions, you are sure to find his property desert. The Duke of Bouillon's, and this Prince's, are two of the greatest properties in France; and all the signs I have yet seen of their greatness are wastes, *landes*, deserts, fern, ling. Go to their residence, wherever it may be, and you would probably find them in the midst of a forest, very well peopled with deer, wild boars, and wolves. Oh! if I was the legislator of France for a day, I would make such great lords skip again."

And the game-preserving lords were but imitating their sovereign. It is difficult to conceive of the hardships occasioned by the great preserves of the royal family, the *capitaineries*, as they were called. That of Chantilly, traversed by Young, was said to be above a hundred miles in circumference, and the inhabitants for that extent of country were pestered with game, without permission to destroy it, in order to give diversion to one man and his friends. The regulations maintained in these regions, often in the neighborhood of populous towns, or of Paris itself, were minute and oppressive. No new walls or fences might be erected, lest the game should be hindered in its attacks on the farmer's crops. Barley could not be cut before midsummer, nor the fields weeded until after the nesting season. The result was an enormous amount of game. About Montgeron, within a day's ride of Paris, there was a covey of partridges on every two acres, besides favorite spots where they abounded much more. Even deer were not uncommon; on the eve of the Revolution one was chased by the hounds of one of the princes and killed in the Rue Royale, at that time one of the outer streets of Paris.

The years of Young's travels were full of political excitement; the last of them were years of revolution. Our traveller associated constantly with people who were taking a great part in public events, dining frequently, when in Paris, at the Duke of Liancourt's table, where many deputies to the National Assembly used to meet twice a week. He attended the sittings of that body and noticed the disorder of the proceedings, the frequent interruptions by members, and the yet more dangerous interference of the spectators in the galleries, who were even known to hiss—"an indecorum," as he well remarks, "which is utterly destructive of freedom of debate." He also paid much attention to the *cahiers*, or lists of grievances, which the nobility, clergy, and people of the various provinces, towns, and villages sent to the Assembly by their deputies, and which have ever since furnished a rich store of information as to the abuses of old France and the desires of the different orders of its inhabitants. In his journeys, besides being subjected to some personal annoyances, caused by the troubled state of the times, he was thrown among many noblemen who had fled from their houses for fear of outrage, and he passed at least one burnt château. His story of confusion in Paris, of want of news, and of absence of the most elementary political training or intelligence in the country, is familiar to many readers by the quotations which historians have given from his book. Many persons will be glad to enlarge their acquaintance with it, in the little volume before us.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

POSSESSION, it is well known, has been for centuries one of the great battle-fields of the Roman law. The Continental treatises on this topic would make a small library. In the English and American legal bibliographies, on the other hand, one finds no mention of the title "Possession." The learning on the subject must be sought piecemeal in the treatises on Torts and Limitations, or in the books of practice. Some of the philosophical and historical aspects of this branch of the law were discussed by Mr. Justice Holmes in a chapter of 'The Common Law.' But to Pollock and Wright's treatise on 'Possession' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) belongs the distinction of being the first and only English book devoted exclusively to this topic. This fact of itself raises a strong presumption that the English law differs widely from the Roman law in the matter of possession. An examination of the book confirms this presumption.

Mr. Pollock writes the introduction and the first half of the book, which, like all this author's writings, is eminently readable. The discussion of the "Nature of Possession" is an admirable piece of work. The chapter on the "Transfer of Possession" leaves a certain impression of scrappiness, perhaps unavoidable when so much ground is covered in so few pages. Much of value is to be found in the remaining chapter on "Possession and Title." There is, for instance, great confusion in the books generally as to the effect of the statute of limitations where B has disseised A, and, having held adversely for ten years, is in turn disseised by C, who occupies for another ten years. Mr. Pollock's solution of the difficulty is at once simple and satisfactory. C can defend successfully against A, but not against B; for A's right of entry is more, while B's right of entry is less, than twenty years old.

Mr. Wright's contribution to this composite work is a very careful examination of possession and trespass in relation to theft. The historical method has been applied, and in particular the Year Books have been exploited with great thoroughness and with substantial results. Now and then the learned author mistakes the import of the ancient sources, as on page 174, where he finds in Littleton's remark the origin of Trover. The "new found Haliday," which excited Littleton's criticism, was simply an innovation in the mode of declaring in Detinue. Again, on page 152, Mr. Wright takes exception to the doctrine that one who steals from a thief may be indicted for stealing the goods of him from whom they were first stolen. But the victim of a theft might maintain an appeal of larceny against either the first taker or any subsequent taker caught in possession of the goods. The same

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rule was naturally extended to indictments, for the criminality of the alleged thief could not depend upon the nature of the prosecutor. The rule that one who steals in one county and carries the goods into another county, may be indicted in either, has a similar historical explanation, namely, that the appeal of larceny could be brought where the thief was taken with the "mainour" as well as where the chattels were stolen. The reason commonly given, that there is a fresh taking in every county, is a fiction of modern lawyers.

Now that this new field of Possession has been opened, we may hope for further explorations, the necessity for which the authors of this pioneer book would be the first to recognize. In the meantime we recommend this treatise to our readers as one of the most interesting and profitable of recent law books.

A book so generally useful as to call for a fourth edition deserved a more careful revision than 'Perry on Trusts' (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.) has received at the hands of the present editor. For, although "the results of about one thousand new cases have been embodied in the text of this edition," the omissions are many and serious. A few illustrations must suffice. The erroneous statement, in §706, that a bequest to keep a tomb in repair is a charitable trust, and therefore valid, remains without comment, although contradicted by some twenty decisions, no one of which is cited, showing that such a bequest is not charitable and therefore void as a perpetuity. The effect of a bequest "upon trust," the terms of the trust not being expressed in the will, but communicated to the trustee, is a controverted question, the trust being effectual in England, Ireland, and Illinois, but inoperative in Massachusetts. The existence of this controversy has escaped our editor. It is a common opinion that a trust for other than charitable purposes must necessarily fail if there is no defined beneficiary who can compel its performance. There seems to be no reason in the nature of things why a court of equity should prevent a willing trustee from effectuating his testator's intentions; and in several recent cases where property was given to trustees upon trust to build a monument, to purchase an advowson for such person as the trustees should designate, to maintain the horses and dogs of the testator, or to apply in masses for his soul, the courts have declined to interfere with the trustee. These cases may be thought to have an important bearing upon the pending litigation in regard to the "Tilden trust." But the reader will seek in vain for them in the book before us, although, it is fair to say, one late New York decision looking the other way is cited.

The scheme of Mr. Buswell's treatise on the 'Statute of Limitations' (Little, Brown & Co.) is an improvement upon its predecessors. If the execution is somewhat disappointing, especially in the chapters dealing with equitable claims, one must take into account the great difficulty of the subject. Indeed, so wide is the field to be covered that it is well-nigh impossible that any practising lawyer should find time to write a first-class work on limitations. This new book will doubtless prove a useful supplement to the treatises of Angell and Wood.

We have two books before us on the subject of Administration from the house of Little, Brown & Co.—'The American Law of Administration,' by J. G. Woerner, Judge of the Probate Court of the city of St. Louis, and 'The Law of Executors and Administrators,' by Simon G. Croswell of the Boston bar. Judge Woerner's work is in two volumes, and the citation by him of 15,000 cases indicates the reading he has done in the preparation of it. One must regret that he has not cited more English cases, even though their citation had led to his dropping the word "American" in his title. It would, again, probably be considered ungracious to criticise an author for giving you more than the title of his book leads you to expect, but one may well question whether some of the topics treated by Judge Woerner would not more appropriately be found in books on Property. The work is a thoroughly valuable one for both the practising lawyer and the student of law.

Mr. Croswell has managed, by using a very concise but clear style, to compress his work into a volume of 793 pages. Because of his experience in writing and editing law books, the profession would naturally expect a useful book from his hands, and that he has written such a one will not admit of question.

The founder of the Whewell Professorship of International Law in the University of Cambridge, England, desired the occupant of the chair to deal particularly with that branch of the subject having for its objects the amelioration of the hardships of war and its final extermination. In accordance with these wishes, the late Sir Henry Maine dealt with the subject of war in eight of the twelve lectures delivered by him at Cambridge on International Law, the remaining four chapters dealing with the general character of the subject. These lectures are now published by his executors (London: John Murray). As elsewhere, when not advancing a new idea, he presents his theme in such an attractive and striking way as always to interest and hold the reader. Of this character is what he has to say as to the distinction between positive law and international law. "International law," he says, "has but slender connection with it [positive law], and . . . has less analogy to the laws which are the commands of sovereigns than to rules of conduct which, whatever might be their origin, are to a very great extent enforced by the disapprobation which attends their neglect." He fully admits that international law, as the word law is used in positive law, is not law at all.

In 'Notes on the Revised Statutes of the United States' (Little, Brown & Co.), Messrs. John M. Gould and George F. Tucker give to the profession the result of labors begun in 1878. Their plan is to indicate the changes that were made in the previous law by the revision of 1874 and all statutory changes and additions since that time, and then, in connection with each section, to give the decisions relating thereto. The book is an indispensable companion to the Revised Statutes, and no lawyer can afford to be without it.

Two volumes of Mr. John D. Lawson's 'Rights, Remedies, and Practice' (San Francisco: Bancroft-Whitney Company) are now published. The work when completed will consist of seven volumes. If the remaining five are executed as well as those now published (and we do not doubt they will be), Mr. Lawson will have edited one of the most important practical works of recent times. The author designs to cover the field of American case law. His plan, as we understand it, is not to deal so much with the rationale of the law as to state briefly the results reached and to give illustrations thereof. This Mr. Lawson has done very successfully in dealing with the subjects of principal and agent, attorney and client, auctioneers, brokers and factors, master and servant, corporations, banks, railroad companies, gas companies, building and loan associations, voluntary associations, religious societies, charitable associations, partnerships, husband and wife, parent and child, guardian and ward, and executors and administrators, in the two volumes now before us.

Chaucer: The Legend of Good Women. Edited by the Rev. Walter W. Skeat, Litt.D. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889.

THE valuable edition of the Minor Poems of Chaucer, which was brought out a short time ago by Prof. Skeat, has been speedily followed by an edition of the 'Legend of Good Women' at the hands of the same scholar. It is almost needless to say that the work is well done. It is amply supplied with explanatory notes which shirk no difficulties; with a glossary that omits no word that needs to be defined; and with an introduction of fifty-four pages which discusses fully the most important points connected with the poem. All the qualities, indeed, that we have learned to expect in Prof. Skeat's editing—wide general knowledge of early English literature, coupled with special knowledge of the subject upon which he is engaged, and these reinforced by the utmost care and industry—are as conspicuous in the preparation of this beautifully printed volume as in any one of the many excellent works which owe their existence to his scholarship and zeal.

In some respects the preparation of the work has been comparatively easy. In the multitude of manuscripts, as in the multitude of counsellors, there is safety; and of the 'Legend of Good Women' nine manuscripts are accessible, if we count as one the text which appears in the folio of 1532. There are therefore no such perplexing questions in connection with various readings as there would be were the authorities few, as, for instance, they are in 'The House of Fame.' The variations, in fact, between these manuscripts are on the whole so slight that it is possible to present a text of this poem which may be deemed to represent with a fair degree of certainty Chaucer's exact words.

This task has been so successfully accomplished that there can be no question that this edition will supersede all others that have been produced. Room, however, must always be given the critic to cavil, and our first objection to this text is, that it is an expurgated one and in most instances an unnecessarily expurgated one. This is something that the 'Legend of Good Women' does not require. Much has been said in the past about the distressing delicacy of Americans; but if we are to judge from the text-books of English literature prepared in England, the mother country is developing this feeling to a degree which leaves us far behind. There is nothing in this volume quite equal to the famous change made in a line of the Prologue to the 'Canterbury Tales' in the Clarendon Press edition, where "wikked sin" was carefully substituted for "concubyn." But there are some alterations and omissions that approach dangerously near it. There are signs, indeed, from these various text-books that it will soon be regarded as soiling the bloom of manly or maidenly purity to speak of a person as having been born.

But, outside of this, the excellence of the text is so great that it comes upon the reader with a sense of surprise to find so experienced an editor as Professor Skeat stumbling over and actually corrupting the following line:

"Yet hath he mad lewed folk delyte."

This he declares he cannot scan; and, to remedy the defect partially, he inserts a *the* before *lewed* without any authority whatever, but giving as an additional reason that it is helpful to the sense. On the contrary, this emendation perverts the sense. Chaucer does not

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mean to say that he has made all "lewed" (that is, all ignorant) people delight—which is the meaning imposed upon the line by the introduction of the definite article—but only that he has made some of them delight. Surely, all difficulty with the scansion can be obviated by substituting for the monosyllabic form of the past participle of *make* the dissyllabic form *maked*. This is not only found frequently in the poet's writings, but occurs in this very work, and, in the original version of the Prologue, occurs in this very line.

Rarely can any exception be taken to the explanations, and it seems, therefore, a somewhat invidious task to point out the one or two places where there has been failure. The source of the word *radevore* remains as much a problem as ever, and Prof. Skeat's suggestion that it might properly be spelled *radenore*, in consequence of a possible derivation from the Greek, is entitled to one of the exclamation points with which he is wont to punctuate the views of others he cannot away with. *Arrest*, too, is very unsatisfactorily explained in the line,

"In noble corage oghte been areste."

It is the more unnecessary as it has been defined rightly by previous editors. The sense of "restraint" which the context requires, is rejected by Prof. Skeat because, he says, it does not exactly appear in Murray's Dictionary. But it has that precise meaning in the passage quoted in that work from the 'Summoner's Tale,' though it is most singularly defined there as "remaining, abiding, continuance."

Let us end up our fault-finding with an expression of dissent from some of the views expressed in the introductory part. There is a good deal said there that would meet with more consideration were it not said so positively. There is displayed at times altogether too much of the knowledge that nobody knows or ever can know. We have had conjecture advanced to the dignity of established fact in times past in discussing the life of Chaucer. Now that it has been pretty effectually cleared away in that quarter, let us refrain from applying the same methods to either the form of his works or to the time of his composition of them.

We should be sorry if anything said in dissent on particular points should be construed into a denial of the great merits of this edition, and in general of its thorough accuracy and excellence. That it will remain the standard one of the 'Legend of Good Women' there is no reason to doubt. That it will attract numerous readers to the poem itself is a result particularly to be hoped. The stories contained in it are not, indeed, representative of Chaucer at his best. He himself plainly grew tired of the work before he had half finished it, and he takes pains to let us know that he had done so. But the Prologue will always remain one of the most interesting and characteristic of his productions. In its two forms it is here presented to the reader, who can have thereby an opportunity to study the varying treatment by the author of the same subject at different times. Now that we have it, through the careful and conscientious editing of Prof. Skeat, essentially if not precisely as it came from the hands of the poet himself, and with all difficulties in the way of its fullest comprehension removed, it may well become a source of constant pleasure to even a far wider circle of readers than it has hitherto been its fortune to have.

Aspects of the Earth. By N. S. Shaler, Professor of Geology in Harvard University. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

THERE is probably no American geologist at the present day who is more successful in presenting the facts of geology in a popularly comprehensible and attractive form, and at the same time keeping himself within the bounds of scientific accuracy, than Prof. Shaler. As a rule, the men who write most readily on popular science are those who have a somewhat superficial knowledge of their subject. They are not troubled with doubts as to the soundness of any particular theory or explanation of natural phenomena, but accept those found in current scientific literature without a question, provided they suit the course of reasoning they are following. Among those, however, who have so completely mastered what is known about a science that they are unwilling to accept the explanations given in text-books until they have personally tested their truth—that is, among what may be called original investigators—the number is now very small, and will constantly become smaller, of those who are qualified to write upon their own specialties for a popular audience. In the first place, it is extremely difficult for them to put themselves on the same intellectual plane with their audience—to gauge it correctly; and, secondly, in a science like geology, in which investigation is constantly modifying and controverting currently accepted theories, they are unwilling to present their explanations in the calm tone of unqualified conviction which is necessary to hold the attention of that audience, and are too apt to weary them with subtle doubts and alternative views beyond their comprehension.

To those who are familiar with the multiplicity of Prof. Shaler's scientific occupations, as Professor of Geology at Harvard College and as member of the United States Geological Survey, it is a matter of wonder that he is able to write *ex cathedra* upon such a variety of scientific subjects and at the same time make so few mistakes. It is rare that the self-confidence and versatility of mind which are necessary qualifications for such work do not, sooner or later, lead its author into some serious scientific error.

In his title to the present work Prof. Shaler was more happy than original. It is an almost literal translation of 'Der Anlitz der Erde,' by Prof. Ed. Suess of Vienna, a monumental work, giving a fundamental and exhaustive discussion of the geological structure of the earth, which, after the German method, has been appearing in parts since 1885, and is not yet completed. The American volume consists of a series of essays upon what might be considered physical geography, rather than geology in the stricter sense of the term, and is well described by the sub-title—"A popular account of some familiar geological phenomena." The greater part of it has already appeared in the form of illustrated articles in *Scribner's Magazine*. To Prof. Shaler's charming style has been added the beauty of large, clear type, heavy paper, and abundant and excellent illustrations. Among them may be recognized many of Bourne & Shepherd's remarkable photographic views of the Himalayas, probably the most perfect mountain pictures the world has ever seen, though they must have been taken over twenty years since. They are not always given a distinct local title, but are used to illustrate some process of nature which the author is describing.

Prof. Shaler's presentation of facts is always interesting, and his manner of accounting for them not infrequently possesses an originality and boldness of conception that would startle a geologist of the more cautious and plodding type. For instance, in his first chapter, on the "Stability of the Earth," he discusses the relative susceptibility to earthquake shocks of various portions of our continent, and, reasoning that since perched boulders or pinnacled rocks would probably have been thrown from their pedestals by a violent shock, their presence in any region must afford evidence that that region has been free from them in the past and may hence be assumed to be without danger from them in the future, he proceeds on this basis to define geographically those regions that may be considered exempt from danger of serious earthquakes. While some might question the stability of his premises, the practical conclusions which he draws, as to the necessity of greater care in guarding against the dangers which the character of much of our modern architecture subjects us to, are most pertinent and forcible. It is beyond the power of the imagination to conceive of the horrors that would be produced in New York city, for instance, by an earthquake shock, even of the comparatively moderate type that recently affected the region round Charleston, S. C.

One of the most interesting chapters is that on "Caverns and Cavern Life," and of the great limestone caverns of the States east of the Mississippi his experience enables Prof. Shaler to speak with great authority; but his views with regard to the probable existence in the Rocky Mountain region of great deposits of ore in caves that have been hollowed out of limestone, will hardly meet with universal acceptance among those who have carefully studied that region. In recounting the remarkable caverns that are left in lava flows by the congealing of the outer crust while the fused interior still flows on, he has neglected to mention the singular caves of this nature on the north side of the Columbia River, near Mount Adams, which serve as natural ice reservoirs, and from which, years ago, before the Alaskan ice trade was established, ice was obtained for the San Francisco market.

The chapter on "Rivers and Valleys" contains, besides its admirable description of their manner of formation, many practical hints of value to the general public, and speaks approvingly of Maj. J. W. Powell's scheme of establishing storage reservoirs in the arid region of the West, without, however, endorsing his theory that the destruction of forests produces no harmful effects on the rainfall of the country. On the contrary, Prof. Shaler agrees with the majority of geologists and physical geographers in considering these effects so destructive that some Government regulation of forests is necessary to avert the widespread disasters which must, sooner or later, result from the gradual removal now going on over vast areas. The chapter on the "Forests of North America" is one of the ablest presentments of this important subject that have yet been written.

The book closes with an interesting account of the geological origin and nature of soils, in which are pointed out some of the wasteful effects of tillage, which, combined with those resulting from the removal of forests, are slowly tending towards the destruction of the fertile soil-covering that nature provided for our continent before the advent of the white man.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Prof. A. A Theory of Conduct. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.
Bentzon, Th. Tentée. 2d ed. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York; F. W. Christern.
Birney, Gen. W. James G. Birney and his Times. D. Appleton & Co. $2.
Blanchard, E. B. The Devil's Dream: A Temperance Story. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.
Blyth, E. K. Life of William Ellis. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Caylor, O. P. A Fated Promise. G. W. Dillingham.

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Crawfurd, O. Sylvia Arden. Frank F. Lovell & Co.
Daintrey, Laura. Fedor. Empire City Pub. Co.
Du Boisgobey, F. Lover or Blackmailer? Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Dumas, A. The Count of Beuzeval. G. W. Dillingham.
Evolution: Popular Lectures and Discussions before the Brooklyn Ethical Association. Boston: James H. West. $2.
Ford, W. C. Writings of George Washington. Vol. V. 1776–1777. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Gardiner, S. R. The Constitutional Documents of the Puritan Revolution. 1628–1660. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hake, A. E., and Wessiau, O. E. Free Trade in Capital. London: Remington & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co. $6.
Hoppus, M. A. M. The Locket: A Tale of Old Guernsey. 2 vols. London: Richard Bentley & Son.
Keltie, J. S. The Story of Emin's Rescue as Told in Stanley's Letters. Harper & Bros.
Littell's Living Age. 5th series. Vol. 68. Boston: Littell & Co.
Loti, P. An Iceland Fisherman. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Maitland, E. The Pilgrim and the Shrine. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Milford, P. Ned Stafford's Experience in the United States. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Moorehead, W. K. Fort Ancient: the Great Prehistoric Earthwork of Warren Co., O. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $2.
Nordau, M. Paris Sketches. Part I. Chicago: L. Schick. 50 cents.
Powell, E. P. Liberty and Life: Discourses. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co. 75 cents.
Schaff, Rev. P. Creed Revision in the Presbyterian Churches. Chas. Scribner's Sons. 50 cents.
Seeley, L. B. Fanny Burney and her Friends. Scribner & Welford. $2.50.

Fine Arts.

KRUELL'S PORTRAITS.

At the last monthly meeting of the Century Club much interest was excited among the large number of members and guests present by Mr. Gustav Kruell's portraits of Darwin, William Lloyd Garrison, and Wendell Phillips, which were exhibited under such favorable conditions as allowed of close examination and study. Admiration for these representations of three remarkable men was surpassed by wonder as to how they were done, although on the card containing the title of each subject was plainly written "wood engraving." One thoroughly conversant with the admirable result and the stages by which it has been reached, feels some hesitancy in determining whether this should be classed as the product of a new art or simply as the old art of Bewick. If we review Mr. Kruell's progress, we shall find that his experimental steps—when the helping hand is so needful—betray the influence of the early inspirer of American wood-engravers, W. J. Linton. This was the apostolic succession of Bewick's "white line," and to this choice of example we undoubtedly owe the freedom which marks Mr. Kruell's study, as well as the exact art culture by which it has been urged. A thorough knowledge of drawing, and possibly painting, he must have possessed to have enabled him to use Linton's free treatment without losing his own identity. A portrait of Fletcher Harper, which created a stir in its day, carries us back to the time when marks of this discipleship were distinct. Here we observe the virile touch, the fluent "pure line," the general gray tone, qualified by dark shadows and courageous clips of white. These are the thumb-marks of Linton. From this point the follower gradually relinquishes the master's hand, walks alone, year by year growing in independence, daring to lay out new ways for himself, subduing his method to the utmost simplicity, concentrating more and more his attention upon portraiture, as affording elbow-room for artistic enlargement untrammelled by any other personality than his own—the whole progress vivified by the energy of enthusiasm which has helped carry his wood engraving beyond the limits of illustration into acknowledged relationship with the fine arts.

These four portraits (there are two of Darwin, a younger and an elder) are printed on a hand-press and on Japan paper. To the casual observer they appear like etchings, but examination shows them to be refined engravings, printed on translucent paper, through which the light partially shining, a shadow is thrown upon the "mount" from the engraving itself, contributing a delicious overtone, more subtile and delicate than that produced by re-inking as in etching.

Mr. Kruell's work, although diversified by all the varieties of method by which textures are created and modulations obtained, discloses other traits not so conspicuous in engraver's work. Here is perfect drawing, strong modelling, nice discrimination in textures, composition such as illumines the subject, unity that relates everything—background and drapery—to the completeness of the portrait, a sweep and largeness of treatment which hides the difficulty and labor of production, and, beyond all, a deep knowledge of, and sympathy with, the motive that quickened the life of the subject. No shade or line or wrinkle, no ascertained peculiarity of attitude or attire, but is made to contribute its full value toward setting forth the manner and soul of the man.

Look at the portraits of Darwin. In the first he appears a robust man of forty-five; the strong material of his coat, with deep wrinkles, his high shirt-collar, ample plaid neckcloth, and checked waistcoat, denoting an interest in the world's affairs and activity out of doors. The chiaroscuro has the wide range from black to white, the least possible note on these extremes, and without a hint of crudeness; the textures, the color of flesh, light-brown hair and sandy whiskers, are exquisitely felt; Darwin's large head, which easily lends itself to grotesque exaggeration, is here saved from disproportion by slightly composing the forehead with the background, the drawing depending mostly upon the shadows of the beetling brows, through which the searching eyes look out. No thought of technique or even art obtrudes itself; we contemplate with deep interest the broad, kind features of the childlike great man, and own the benign influence of the related character.

The other picture represents Darwin at seventy-two, and is taken out of doors. He wears a soft felt hat and dark circular cloak, and leans against a tree that runs up the side of the picture, with small attempt at composition, by which the effect of weariness is heightened. The face is in almost a three-quarters view, quite colorless, the beard and hair showing light in comparison. In contrast to the other, the treatment is here tender, gentle, intensely sympathetic; the line, when we examine it, is smaller, more simple and uniform; the face is not sad, but resigned; the eye no longer inquires, but answers with a look of patient waiting. We feel that his work is done; the light of it has faded from his countenance, and he abides the end. The chiaroscuro is here used to excellent descriptive effect.

In William Lloyd Garrison—a man "whom," said Darwin, "I honor from the bottom of my soul"—we have another strong subject, strongly placed and well related in tone values. Here, too, is ruggedness in treatment, just to the degree demanded by the character; and here, too, the work is done and the end near. The eyes are lit by the benevolence which animated the fight, and almost break into smiles—a battlement in peace time overgrown with flowers.

On the other hand, Wendell Phillips, the Damascus blade of the anti-slavery ranks, polished in dress and deportment, is not only so set forth as a portrait, but is so expressed in Mr. Kruell's technique. While each of these pictures, in its way and in accordance with its subject, is a masterpiece, this last one is preeminently a masterpiece as catching the elegance and refinement of the silver-tongued speaker. By a happy accident of the original photograph, the characteristic pose and glance exactly match Lowell's description of Phillips in 1846:

> "There, with one hand behind his back,
> Stands Phillips buttoned in a sack,
> Our Attic orator, our Chatham:
> Old fogies, when he lightens at 'em,
> Shrivel like leaves."

The qualities we have here attempted to set forth, the evidences of broad culture, the command of the given means, are such as we seek in the best painters' work, and until such art has become more widely known and has been awarded its special place, it is by painters' work that its standing must be determined. Certainly we may look in vain among other graphic arts for anything comparable with these portraits. Elsewhere a manner interposes between our intelligence and the object portrayed; exquisite lines demand admiration, inane scratches pique curiosity, or opaque tones limit our interest. But here we dwell upon the intelligences represented, without thought of the mode of production; we look upon absolutely human faces and into human eyes.

Shoulder to shoulder, in this development, with the artist of whom we write, are an increasing phalanx, now represented by Kingsley and Closson in landscape, French and Miss Powell in figures, all moved by one spirit, in their various ways, to set forth Bewick's art in this new field, where, urged by the momentum of a hundred years' experience, strengthened and refined by improvements in printing and material, with the "Japan proof" added, it must continue to grow and multiply testimonials to its excellence such as shall make for it its own host of admirers. This is the necessity of each new art expression, and there is no reason to fear the result as regards this one.

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> As God lives, is permanent."

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